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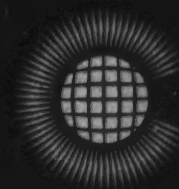
ABSTRACT

Commonwealth Secretariat's (Great Britain) recent report on human-resource development (HRD) focused on the experiences and lessons of HRD initiatives undertaken by governments and aid agencies around the world, focusing on ways to improve the impact, effectiveness, and sustainability of such initiatives. One strategy that seemed promising was the professionally managed government (PMG) audit, and a review of this approach's potential in education is offered in this report. The text analyzes essential elements in HRD and the management function of government in such matters. It then outlines the PMG audit, which is an operational technique to assist governments in examining and improving the effectiveness of their HRD initiatives. The book then examines PMG and partnership with nongovernment sectors, as well as PMG and gender issues, PMG and technology, and also PMG and resource mobilization. Some strategies and issues are detailed. The PMG-HRD audit tool is presented alongside a holistic emphasis on HRD and a profile of professionally managed government. The report defines professionally managed government as government that demonstrates political will and good governance, decentralization and devolution of management responsibilities, accountability and transparency, and quality. To show how such a process can work, case studies from six different countries are provided. (RJM)

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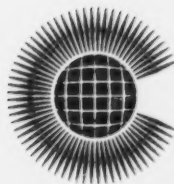
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The Role of Professionally Managed Government

Action for Human Resource Development



COMMONWEALTH SECRETARIAT

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Contents

<i>Foreword</i>	V
<i>Abbreviations</i>	VI
<i>Chapter 1</i>	
Introduction	
1.1 Human resource development	7
1.2 Essential elements in HRD	7
1.3 The management function of government	8
1.4 Workshops in PMG	9
<i>Chapter 2</i>	
Key strategies	
2.1 HRD through PMG	10
2.2 PMG and partnership with non-government sectors	11
2.3 PMG and gender issues	12
2.4 PMG and technology	13
2.5 PMG and resource mobilisation	15
2.6 PMG strategies and issues	17
<i>Chapter 3</i>	
PMG-HRD audit tool (Inspection list and tool kit)	
3.1 HRD vision and contract	20
3.2 A holistic approach to HRD	20
3.3 Professionally managed government	20
3.4 The audit tool	21
PMG-HRD audit tool (Inspection list and tool kit)	23-36
<i>Chapter 4</i>	
Case studies	
4.1 Preamble	37
4.2 Commonalties	37
The case studies	
1 Bangladesh	38
2 Botswana	43
3 Ghana	50
4 Jamaica	54
5 New Zealand	59
6 Seychelles	65
A reading list in PMG for HRD	70
List of participants	71

Foreword

The Commonwealth Secretariat's work in human resource development (HRD) was given renewed impetus in 1993 with the publication of the report of a Commonwealth Working Group, entitled *Foundation for the Future*. The report considered the experiences and lessons derived from many HRD initiatives that have been undertaken by governments and aid agencies around the world and proposed ways in which the impact, effectiveness and sustainability of such initiatives could be improved. In particular, it advocated the adoption of a comprehensive and multi-sectoral approach involving five key strategies, which should be applied in a concerted manner to the core components of HRD such education, health and employment.

Among the five key strategies, better and more professionally managed government (PMG) was recognised to be a cross-cutting issue which provides a necessary under-pinning for all other strategies. A pan-Commonwealth workshop held in Malaysia in July 1995 brought together senior officials from education and other HRD ministries, who examined PMG from the practical point of view as it applies to HRD. One important innovation emerging from this workshop was the development of the concept of a PMG Audit, comprising an Inspection List and Tool Kit, as an operational technique to assist governments to examine and improve the effectiveness of their HRD initiatives. This concept was refined and extended in a Commonwealth Expert Group meeting held in the UK in October 1995, followed by further work by a consultant during 1996.

We present this PMG Audit tool, together with an explanation of the concept and a number of case studies which illustrate some key issues, in the hope that it will be widely adopted and will be found to make a useful contribution to improving the effectiveness and impact of work in HRD.

We are extremely grateful to all the government senior officials, agency representatives and experts who contributed their time and experience to the development of the ideas in this publication and to the consultant, Mr Murray Macrae, for his invaluable assistance with the finalisation of the work.

Professor Stephen A Matlin

Director

Human Resource Development Division

The Commonwealth Secretariat

London

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Abbreviations

CEDAW	Convention for Elimination of Discrimination Against Women
CHOGM	Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting
CJSS	Community Junior Secondary School
DVET	Department of Vocational Education and Training
ERP	Education Reform Programme
ERRC	Educational Reform Review Committee
FFF	Foundation for the Future
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
HDI	Human Development Index
HEART	Human Employment And Resource Training
HRD	Human Resource Development
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IT	Information Technology
LAA	Learning Assistance Allowance
MIS	Management Information Systems
MTP	Medium Term Plan
NBCC	National Brigade Co-ordinating Committee
NCTVET	National Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training
NGO(s)	Non-Governmental Organisation(s)
NTA	National Training Agency
ODA	Overseas Development Administration
PIU	Project Implementation Unit
PMG	Professionally Managed Government
PROGIS	Provisional Guidance Information System
PTA	Parent Teacher Association
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
SRA	Strategic Results Area
SSS	Senior Secondary School
SSSCE	Senior Secondary School Certificate in Education
STME	Science, Technology and Mathematics Education
TCF	Thana Credit Fund
TFEA	Targeted Funding for Educational Achievement
TQM	Total Quality Management
TRDEP	Thana Resource Development and Employment Project
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNESCO	United Nations Education and Science Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VTDI	Vocational Training Development Institute
WHO	World Health Organisation

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Human resource development

Human resource development (HRD) is essential for the socio-economic development and well-being of a nation. The experiences of countries with limited land and natural resources, such as Japan, Hong Kong, the Netherlands and Singapore, illustrate that the most important assets for a country's economic growth and development are the skills, enterprise and industriousness of its population.

The term *human resource development* is used in several ways. In organisations, it is generally used to describe the professional development of staff. Governments often apply the term to their programmes of developing the public service through tertiary education and special training programmes. It is also frequently used in a national context, locating HRD within the framework of national work force requirements. In such cases, education and training are provided across the economy as a whole to 'slot' individuals into the occupational positions needed to make it operate efficiently.

The concept of HRD places great emphasis on the centrality of people, not only as sources of human and social capital that will contribute to achieving the goals of sustainable development within a cohesive and stable society, but also as individuals seeking greater equity of opportunity and enhanced quality of life for themselves and their families.

Substantial amounts of effort and domestic and foreign resources have been devoted to HRD in developing countries in recent decades, and much has been achieved in the short term in many countries to improve the education, training and capacities of people. However, there have also been many instances where the expected outcomes have not fully materialised, or where projects that thrived for as long as there was commitment from external agencies began to founder when this support came to an end.

In 1993, a Commonwealth Working Group produced a report entitled *Foundation for the Future*. This examined the experiences derived from many HRD initiatives worldwide and extracted a number of lessons about the necessary characteristics that HRD programmes should possess if they are to not only to demonstrate effectiveness, but also to be sustainable in their longer-term impact. The report, which advocated

that HRD initiatives should adopt a comprehensive and multi-sectoral approach, gave an important new stimulus to the HRD work of the Commonwealth Secretariat. This has involved both the sensitisation of governments to the key strategies for HRD, and their mainstream adoption in the Secretariat's own work programmes.

One of the five key strategies advocated for improving HRD is better and more professionally managed government. This cross-cutting issue was considered in detail in a pan-Commonwealth workshop held in Malacca, Malaysia in July 1995 and the recommendations of that meeting were subsequently refined and extended by an Expert Group which met in Hertford, UK in October 1995. The participants in those two workshops, whose ideas and experiences in HRD contributed greatly to the content of the present publication, are listed in the Annex at the end of this document.

1.2 Essential elements in HRD

The Commonwealth Secretariat's report *Foundation for the Future* (FFF) noted the advantages of intersectoral solutions to HRD problems and favoured a holistic approach to address explicitly issues surrounding HRD. This perspective emphasises the importance of empowering people as a major factor in the development process and consequently places emphasis on:

- ◆ multi-sectoral approaches to planning,
- ◆ involvement, from the outset, of the representatives of all key stakeholders in the process of analysis, planning, implementation and evaluation,
- ◆ co-ordination with other sectors,
- ◆ partnership with international organisations, non-government organisations, relevant stakeholders and communities.

Translation of this concept of HRD into policy and practice will have varying implications according to the circumstances of individual states, their size, current levels of economic development, the prevailing political philosophy and the degree of exposure to adjustment programmes. Nevertheless, whatever the precise formulation appropriate to individual countries, there are five key strategies which underlie both FFF and this report:

- ◆ well managed and more professional government
- ◆ partnership with NGOs and the private sector
- ◆ priority for gender issues
- ◆ the appropriate use of technology
- ◆ mobilising resources

These key strategies are to be applied in a concerted manner to the essential components of HRD:

- ◆ education and training
- ◆ primary health care
- ◆ nutrition at adequate levels
- ◆ population policies
- ◆ employment

1.3 The management function of government

The role of government is fundamental and improvement in its effectiveness is central to national efforts to promote HRD. Professionally managed government (PMG) may be defined simply as government that demonstrates the following essential features:

- ◆ political will and good governance
- ◆ decentralisation and devolution of management responsibilities
- ◆ accountability and transparency
- ◆ quality

These features are amplified below and in Chapter 3 of this report.

Governments have a critical leadership function to play in defining human resource development policies and in creating economic and institutional environments which enable people to live healthy and productive lives. There are, however, obvious limitations to their effectiveness. They may be constrained in terms of natural resources, by the infrastructure bequeathed them by their predecessors and often by a legacy of national or international debts. Secondly, they are constrained by external factors, including terms of international trade, the activities of multi-

national companies and the policies of organisations such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund. Thirdly they have an inherently limited leverage on the social and cultural milieu of their own environment: the values, attitudes, mores, cultural and legal practices of their own society.

The above limitations are causing the role of government to be radically reassessed in many countries. For example, many governments are devolving some responsibilities onto other organisations and are entrusting functions to parastatal bodies, to specially established executive agencies and to non-government organisations. There are also parallel tendencies to re-emphasise the co-ordinating role of government and its accountability to clients and customers, the openness of government to public scrutiny and the need for democratic involvement both in choosing political leadership and in the management of public services.

The tendency of governments to involve a variety of partners in the decision-making and implementation processes has meant that a wide range of management needs must be satisfied for successful HRD:

- ◆ appropriate policy formulation and implementation
- ◆ participatory planning
- ◆ quality assurance procedures
- ◆ monitoring and evaluation of the partnership process
- ◆ education and training at all levels
- ◆ management training
- ◆ gender sensitisation and planning
- ◆ development of technology awareness and computer skills
- ◆ cost-sharing mechanisms
- ◆ joint transparency and accountability procedures
- ◆ multisectoral co-ordination

These and other aspects of PMG were the principle concern of two workshops, conducted by the Commonwealth Secretariat in 1995, which form the basis of this report.

1.4 Workshops in PMG

A workshop, held in Malacca, Malaysia, in July 1995, met specifically to examine how well-managed and more professional government affects the five core components of human resource development and the way in which it relates to the key strategies outlined earlier. Three parallel working groups discussed these relationships in detail and the reports of their discussions are synthesised in Chapter 2. One of the important outcomes of their deliberations was the clarification of factors associated with professionally managed government and the indicators, constraints and needs relating to its attainment. These factors were further refined at a follow-up workshop in Hertfordshire, UK, in October 1995, and are summarised in an Inspection List and Tool Kit (PMG-HRD Audit Tool) included in Chapter 3. The Audit Tool provides a framework within which governments may improve the management of HRD.

Throughout the Malacca workshop, participants provided examples of ways in which their countries have undertaken innovative enterprises to satisfy HRD needs. In particular, six countries provided case studies, included as Chapter 4 of this report, that illustrate in practical terms the extent to which PMG can promote meaningful HRD schemes.

HRD initiatives will not occur without certain management prerequisites being in place. Although the creation of the right environment for such development is the responsibility of all stakeholders, it generally falls to governments to encourage appropriate start-up and sustaining activities. This in turn demands a professional approach to the national management of HRD. Workshop participants recognised that translating the concept of PMG into practice will have different connotations across countries. Notwithstanding, this report seeks to provide a broad framework for the creation of a climate conducive to PMG.

Chapter 2 Key strategies

2.1 HRD through PMG

Human resource development (HRD) is concerned with the preparation of individuals to become effective participants in sustainable socio-economic growth. If HRD is to take place then there should be opportunities for all for productive work not only to satisfy basic minimum needs of food, water, nutrition, health and shelter but also to improve the quality of life for individuals, thereby developing social structures and national economies.

A professionally managed government (PMG) will ensure that its nation members become enhanced both as contributors to and beneficiaries of development (Box 2.1). A PMG will therefore aim to secure central investment in human capital, empowerment of individuals and groups, equity of access to quality education, training, health and nutrition opportunities and full participation in the development process.

Box 2.1

HRD for national enhancement

"The only way a country can enhance its economic status and quality of life is through appropriate human resource development."

[see Chapter 4, Case study 1]

Above all, PMG is characterised by an ethical and moral imperative which ensures that HRD takes place and that it does so in a fair and balanced way.

For PMG to be effective, there are five key factors which should be addressed:

1 National development plan

To ensure that HRD is endorsed at the highest possible level, it must evolve within the context of a national development plan and a broad consensus about overall objectives. The clear presentation of such a plan is a key primary task for any PMG.

2 Political will and commitment

A PMG is characterised by full commitment from all members within the political structure. The mobilisation of adequate resources to ensure successful HRD may be regarded as primary evidence of commitment and political will. Equally importantly, a PMG can also demon-

strate its will by acting as the leading catalyst and facilitator of national development. This requires a planning process derived through consultation and negotiation on a long-term non-party basis.

3 Decentralisation and devolution

Although central government is responsible for national policy and the legislative framework within which stakeholders participate, it is necessary to devolve authority if policy is to be transformed into effective action. Therefore, in a PMG, local government, NGOs and public and private institutions will bear the onus of implementation and delivery. This implies a central policy of strengthening local government and other institutions and providing a monitoring and feedback system which informs decision-making at the centre.

Effective partnerships are essential in a decentralised system. It follows that a PMG creates an enabling environment within which partnerships involving itself, non-governmental institutions and grass-roots activists are valued, nurtured and supported (Box 2.2).

4 Political accountability

PMG makes use of a number of regulatory devices to ensure political accountability and to avoid corruption in its various forms. Accountability measures may include evolution of and adherence to codes of conduct by politicians; self-policing by government officials, parliamentary standing committees and public accounts committees; performance audits at all operational levels; participatory styles of management; research monitoring and evaluation; the creation and/or strengthening of the post of national ombudsman.

Box 2.2

Devolution into partnership

The Thana Resource Development and Employment Project (TRDEP) programme of Bangladesh provides an example of a PMG which recognises that for effective changes in HRD to take place, particularly in poverty alleviation, devolution to grass-roots level is necessary and NGO styles of operation must be adopted.

The TRDEP programme "advocates indigenous, self-reliant and participatory development of the

poorest nuclear and semi-nuclear family groups. The Youth Ministry functionaries at the thana {sub district} level work as a catalyst to organise the family group, comprising five to ten members, who meet once a week to discuss their problems. In the project area the officers carry out a survey of disadvantaged families to assess physical assets, available skills, potentially viable activities and the need for credit and skill development in order to ascertain the nature of assistance required. Priority is given to youths between 15 and 35 years of age. Each group selects a chairperson who is elected annually from the senior family members. The chairperson co-ordinates activities, provides leadership and ensures the appropriate use of credit."

"...TRDEP has succeeded in promoting human resource development through income generating activities by adopting group responsibility and a supervised credit system with a decentralised operational modality similar to NGO operations. It has been able to attract and develop the poorest and most vulnerable section of the rural population of Bangladesh."

[see Chapter 4, Case study 1]

A PMG will initiate administrative and legal frameworks which underpin accountability measures and which operate at all levels of government.

5 Resources

PMG and HRD both need to be adequately resourced. As part of resource management, a PMG will address issues of sustainability and aid management, whether the government is behaving as a net donor of assistance or a net recipient (Box 2.12).

2.2 PMG and partnership with non-government sectors

It is well understood that governments alone cannot bring about HRD and that partnerships with the NGO and private enterprise sectors are both desirable and strategically advantageous. A PMG will aim to maximise the benefits and minimise the drawbacks inherent in partnership ventures. There are a number of approaches which may be adopted to assist in this aim:

1 Partnership through dialogue

To strengthen partnership and foster a sense of ownership of projects, it is advantageous to estab-

lish government-NGO forums and associations. These should ensure consultation and collaboration during the project planning and design phases and feedback and accountability during implementation.

2 Enabling management structures

To create trust and to clarify roles and responsibilities, a PMG will operate in concert with the non-governmental sector by establishing local and national frame-works such as Boards of Management, Trustees and/or Governors, Trusts and Foundations and National Training Boards. It may also enter into social contracts with representative groups, thus providing participants with a sense of ownership.

Management structures can be facilitated in a number of ways: for example, by sanctioning grants and facilities to various Boards of Management, providing tax incentives in return for investment in training; giving training in and access to government procedures, providing operating licences and relaxing or even deregulating certain statutory controls.

3 Exploiting relative strengths and roles

The non-governmental sector possesses strengths which can be turned to national advantage.

For example:

- a NGOs have a strong record in motivation, involvement at grass-roots level, effective communication and developing interfaces between local communities and international experts;
- b the private sector is widely recognised as a special "engine of change", playing a productive role by taking on responsibility for training, technological innovation, capital expenditure and general provision in many aspects of education, health care, and employment.

A PMG recognises that involving NGOs and the private sector as social partners in development contributes to capacity building and the common wealth of the nation. Therefore, where appropriate, it will assist NGOs by providing training in government modalities such as proposal preparation and negotiation.

Government has a very important and powerful partnership role to play in the identification

and, through a system of inspection, maintenance of national standards and values.

4 Capacity building

A PMG can assist the capacity-building role of the private sector in a number of ways. For example it can provide access to training (not only for government officials but also for representatives of the private sector, including community groups) in areas such as negotiating for resources, project design and, possibly in terms of joint ventures, management, monitoring and evaluation.

As far as possible a PMG ensures that, in its partnerships with NGOs, sustainability is designed into joint activities.

5 Monitoring, evaluation and feedback

Monitoring the effectiveness of NGO activity is important and is likely to be most efficient if criteria for evaluation procedures are established at the start of a project. Governments have a central role to play in this connection.

A PMG will make the provision of public funds to NGOs conditional upon monitoring, evaluation and reporting procedures being fulfilled. Where circumstances demand, it will monitor the flow and use of foreign aid to NGOs to ensure against waste, misuse of funds and disregard for national values. The results of such monitoring must be accessible to all the relevant partners.

2.3 PMG and gender issues

Foundation for the Future expresses the conviction that 'correction ... of gender imbalances requires affirmative action by governments'. To redress imbalances PMGs will adopt strategies which identify and utilise gender planning tools and which ensure that measures undertaken are monitored with a view to their effectiveness and sustainability.

1 Gender priority strategies

A PMG will implement strategies which take gender priorities into account at four key levels of input:

- a heads of state, government leaders and very senior personnel
- b parliamentary and constitutional level
- c ministerial and legislative level
- d policy and action level

Commitment to gender balance issues in HRD, especially priorities for women, should be expressed in overarching statements initiated at the top, which are incorporated at the policy and legislative levels and transformed into action during implementation.

Gender issues are invariably cross-sectoral, involving health, education, social services and population growth. To cater for such cross-cutting issues, a centrally-situated women's interest section, whether at bureau, department, division or ministry level, is a hallmark of a PMG (Box 2.3). This body should be sufficiently resourced and empowered as to make it fully effective.

Box 2.3

Ministry of Women's Affairs

In Bangladesh the government has underscored priority for women by up-grading their Women's Affairs Division into a fully-fledged Women's Affairs Ministry.

Countries in the Commonwealth have demonstrated their high-level commitment to resolving gender imbalances through their endorsement of the Commonwealth Plan of Action on Gender and Development, which lays down specific requirements for governments to take affirmative action in gender issues.

PMGs need to implement strategies that enable women to enter non-traditional areas of employment; this necessitates provision for child care facilities and appropriate training programmes. They also need to ensure that gender issues are properly considered "in the round"; that they encompass religious and cultural norms, take into account changing male and female inputs to the workplace and the family (Box 2.4), safeguard family values and stability, monitor whether various socialisation processes are working to the advantage or disadvantage of one or other of the sexes, guard against 'women' and 'gender' becoming synonymous and that they mainstream women's issues in such a way that they are perceived as being non-threatening and for the benefit of society as a whole.

Box 2.4

An unforeseen gender effect

Although there are many positive examples and role models for women in Singapore, concern arose when it became clear that up to 35% of professional women were not marrying and having children. So, while

professional women were using their abilities for the benefit of the country, they were also creating a negative population growth.

In education and training, the government is the custodian of the curriculum. A PMG will ensure that curricula are reformed to remove gender discrimination, stereotyping and bias. It will use the curriculum to promote strong role models from both sexes and teaching approaches and methodologies which enhance participation of girls and women (Box 2.5).

Box 2.5

Girls into science

A PMG will be pro-active in redressing the under-representation of girls in certain areas of the curriculum. In Ghana, this has taken the form of the introduction, on a national scale, of Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STME) clinics for girls. Women play a leading role in the STME clinics.

"The objectives of the STME clinics are to encourage girls in secondary schools to take a more active interest in science and mathematics as school subjects, to do well in them and to consider careers in this area. This is achieved by bringing groups of between 150-200 girls, from schools all over the country, to the clinics for a period of two weeks. During this time they interact with role model female scientists and technologists."

[see Chapter 4, Case study 3]

2 Monitoring and feedback

A PMG will facilitate well-focused studies and surveys on the status of women. Where appropriate these should be conducted by women's groups, including women's NGOs, in order to ensure that government action is seen to be by and with women, not simply for them. There should be monitoring of the allocation of resources, gender discrimination and bias in public and private utilities and the access of the sexes to stereotyped professions.

All national statistics, particularly census information and education, health and employment data, should be disaggregated by sex.

2.4 PMG and technology

Technology comprises a set of tools (machines, instruments, software) and the techniques for

using these tools. Modern technologies can have a profound impact on HRD, for example: improving the quality of and access to basic education through distance-learning methods; elimination of disease and reduction in child mortality through immunisation programmes, improved sanitation, clean water supplies and better primary health care; increasing the range, quality productivity and sophistication of industry and agriculture; expanding job opportunities in the employment sector.

This calls for a broadening of the concept of technology to include not only areas such as engineering, electronics, materials, automation and information technologies but also the field of management. A range of new management tools and techniques are having a considerable impact on the ability of managers to control, monitor and evaluate the productivity and performance of operations and to incorporate effective quality assurance mechanisms into their processes. Examples include the application of Total Quality Management (TQM) to operational activities and the use of Management Information Systems (MIS) to inform decision-making and enable flexible responses to be made to changing circumstances. The management of information itself, as a valuable national resource, has become a vital skill for effective modern government.

A PMG has a dual role in relation to technology: to promote its use nationally and to make the best use of technology so that its own administrative, management and legislative systems become models of efficiency for the country as a whole. Those involved with human resource management need to master the new technology and a PMG will develop policies and strategies which are conducive to such mastery.

1 Policy on technology

Governments need to consider how to organise themselves in such a way as to best handle technology, e.g. whether to have a cross-sectoral Ministry of Science and Technology (Box 2.6) or departments in various ministries.

Box 2.6

A ministry of technology

In Malaysia there is a national policy to promote science and technology and a Ministry responsible for development and implementation of the policy.

A PMG will ensure that its civil service is adequately trained in and has access to the new technologies. It will also demonstrate a clear political commitment to and provide an enabling environment for advanced forms of technology in terms of resource allocation for training, research and scientific interventions. This may mean the establishment of a National Institute for Technology to serve as a focal point and a means of building technology at national level.

To prevent imbalances in exposure to the new technology, particularly in the use of computers, a feature of a PMG will be the formulation of a national computer education policy. This may include:

- a the inclusion of new technology and computer literacy in the curricula of primary, secondary and tertiary educational institutions,
- b packages which promote technology and science education in preference to the arts, designed to attract both girls and boys.

A PMG will promote policies which prepare itself and its civil service to adopt 'open economy' models and to face the challenges of new technologies being developed internationally.

Since new technology is closely linked to information handling, an urgent issue for many governments is the formulation of an unambiguous policy regarding the release of information to the public.

For all governments the costs of technology are critical to policy formation. The cost factor calls for careful consideration of what is necessary, what is appropriate and what is neither.

Policies need to be presented in such a way that technology is regarded positively as providing opportunities to improve the quality of life through increased productivity and effective HRD and not negatively, e.g. as a threat to employment.

2 Appropriate uses of technology

Appropriate technology must be needs-based and should incorporate the concepts of required and manageable technology. It therefore follows that a PMG will identify the technology that is required to meet its own country's HRD needs (Box 2.7).

Box 2.7

Planning to meet diverse HRD needs

The government of Seychelles has recognised the need to plan for training personnel to service an economy which is particularly diverse as well as being extremely sensitive to external forces.

"Future improvements will lie with the National Vocational Training Board which will be expected to formulate a national vocational policy, outline the strategy for a programme of action and establish standards. It should not be seen merely as another element of the existing institutional framework but as an objective evaluator of the effectiveness of future training programmes. Effective intervention to promote relevant skill training will lead to appropriate human resource development for all sectors of the economy."

[see Chapter 4, Case study 6]

Appropriate uses of technology as applied to HRD which may be of interest to a PMG include the following:

- a provision of credible databases and tools for monitoring, demographic study, analysis and projections, using data from population censuses and sub-sector statistical surveys,
- b tracking under-utilised resources,
- c developing advanced management information systems (MIS) to improve efficiency in the civil service, aid management and HRD outlets,
- d establishing data-sharing partnerships within and across national boundaries
- e developing, or absorbing through technology transfer, technological innovations in areas such as water reticulation, solar heating, "biogas" production, biotechnology and food technology.

3 Capacity to utilise technology

To make a realistic cost-benefit analysis, a PMG will set in place the means of conducting a national evaluation of the feasibility of introducing the new technologies (Box 2.8).

Box 2.8**A national training agency**

In order to analyse the labour market and the capacity of instructors to supply its training and technological needs, Jamaica has evolved a nationally planned and co-ordinated training agency.

"Jamaica [has developed] plans for co-ordinating all vocational training activities in the public sector. The ... National Training Agency [constituted in 1991] has direct responsibility for policy planning, gathering information on the labour market and training instructors. In order to improve the effectiveness of the training system, testing, certification, accreditation and funding also became functions of the organisation."

Already this is producing a response in the training provision being offered to young people.

[see Chapter 4, Case study 4]

When promoting technology there are certain prerequisites which a PMG will aim to meet:

- a the development of a literate and numerate population with basic keyboard familiarity,
- b means of reducing inequities in access to facilities and employment, e.g. between rich and poor schools, between urban and rural areas,
- c realisation of a proper balance between acceptance of indigenous practices which are technologically appropriate and effective and those which promote myths and superstitions to the detriment of technological innovation

Information technology (IT) is an important tool whose databases, MISs and statistical assistance provide support for PMGs. However, IT does not make or take decisions for governments. Decision-making and policy-formulation remain the prerogative of governments; IT merely assists these processes.

4 Technology transfer

Insofar as technology transfer implies a sharing of the benefits of technology, a PMG will ensure that institutional frameworks are established which assist in accessing equipment and spreading and analysing information (Box 2.9).

Box 2.9**Sharing the benefits of IT**

In Barbados computer laboratories have been installed in all secondary schools and are made available to the public after school hours in continuing education classes.

In many countries non-governmental institutions, such as universities and the private sector, are in the forefront of technology utilisation and development. A PMG will seek ways of facilitating such transfer between the public and private sectors (Box 2.10).

Box 2.10**Public-private transfer**

In Ghana a package has been developed between government and a private sector partner to promote computer education. The partner provides equipment and training; resource units are established in a number of schools and computer education is now part of the national curriculum.

2.5 PMG and resource mobilisation

The success or otherwise of governments in providing for human resource development is virtually wholly dependent on the availability of adequate financial and human resources. Where resources are available, it is equally essential that they are mobilised in the most effective ways.

Since it is generally not possible to conjure up new resources from thin air, governments are obliged to identify and put into operation strategies which improve and strengthen the deployment of existing resources. This often involves targeting of funds (Box 2.11).

Box 2.11**Targeted funds**

All countries, whether rich or poor, are well aware that resources are scarce and must be effectively mobilised. It is therefore a hallmark of a PMG if it can target resources where they are most productive. In New Zealand analytical techniques are being used to target those being disadvantaged by socio-economic factors.

"A distinction is drawn between funding for needs which can be predicted fairly reliably in the school population at large, such as those targeted at addressing educational disadvantage caused by socio-economic factors, and

funding for needs which cannot be predicted reliably in the school population at large, for example the special education needs for those with a physical, emotional or intellectual disability; or the special English language needs of those whose first language is not English. The resources referred to here are the former. They do not include special education resources.

"In 1992 ... a review of discretionary and targeted resourcing across New Zealand state schools was undertaken. It was noted that the allocation of discretionary resources to target educational disadvantages and learning needs had generally been won through various government policy initiatives over the preceding two or so decades. ... Approximately 95% of schools (catering for 99% of students) received at least one targeted resource."

The changes in New Zealand have been incremental over time. The timing of the introduction of equity funding was also important; it is not something that can be sprung on an unsuspecting public.

[see Chapter 4, Case study 5]

1 Strategies for resource utilisation

In efforts to increase the efficiency of utilisation of scarce resources, a number of governments have devised and implemented means of transferring the delivery of some of their education and health services to well run private bodies and local communities.

Despite the political attraction of achieving short-term, highly visible returns, a PMG will be willing to allocate resources to more valuable longer-term projects where the immediate political gain may be less apparent. This implies that resource allocation should arise from a needs-based analysis rather than from political expediency.

To avoid excessive dependency of some sectors upon resourcing from the centre, a PMG will encourage the NGO and private sectors to utilise local resources, for example to contribute to basic education, primary health care, population control and employment generation. Likewise, where targeting of resources to a particular sector is used as a tactic, it should be for a fixed period of time, thereby reducing long-term dependency (Box 2.11).

To conserve resources, a PMG should generally seek to down-size its scale of operation and, if necessary, reallocate resources from less efficient to more efficient sectors.

Where possible, a PMG will build realistic cost-recovery mechanisms, however small, into

development programmes, for example: fee-recovery charges for tertiary education, user charges for text-books and teaching materials, repayment of food and boarding, nominal charges for prescribed medicines and health services. This will encourage ownership and a personal sense of value through investment in HRD benefits. However, such measures will be introduced with great care and sensitivity in order to reduce impact on the poor and disadvantaged (including girls and women). Failure to do so may lead to adverse effects on HRD, as has been seen with the negative outcomes of structural adjustment policies on education and health indices in some developing countries

2 Improving internal resource management

A PMG will initiate ways of improving its internal capacity to manage resources. This is becoming increasingly important as resources are in poor supply and raising taxes may not be viable. For example, as part of resource-management capacity-building, a PMG may consider the establishment of parastatal planning, productivity and/or financial assistance bodies which encourage the private sector to support and even take over certain aspects of government programmes.

Where practical, the concept of government as provider of goods and services should be replaced by that of government as purchaser of services provided by the non-governmental sectors. This will free government from some of the less productive aspects of resource management, leaving time and energy for improving and monitoring its professional and legislative role.

To encourage the private sector to free resources to support government initiatives, rules and regulations should be liberalised. However, deregulation can only take place safely if governments concurrently introduce monitoring devices which ensure that standards are at least maintained if not improved.

To ensure proper resource utilisation, performance audits and evaluations should be introduced.

To conserve resources and to provide a positive example to the public, pilfering of public property and corruption at all levels of government should be eliminated.

3 Mobilising external resources

Donors, such as the World Bank and the regional Development Banks, may be approached for loans. However, such loans are almost invariably

accompanied by a requirement that the government can demonstrate its capacity to manage the aid; this in turn usually sets in motion a train of negotiated policy adjustments (Box 2.12).

To assist in capacity building, PMGs, together with donors, should ensure that funding for projects is based on firm, well thoughtout plans which provide frameworks for the effective resourcing and management of development programmes. Part of the planning process may include the development of a joint strategy for aid-resource management as an integral part of the programme.

To minimise fragmented and disjointed support for projects, a PMG may consider mobilising resources from a consortium of donors for various components of its health, education, population and employment programmes. Such support may be cross-cutting, cross-sectoral or multi-sectoral in character and will require an umbrella co-ordinating device. This raises further issues in resource management.

Box 2.12

The need for capability in aid-resource management

One of the factors which contributed to an initial poor performance of Ghana's Educational Reform Programme was the government's lack of capability to meet the main donor's terms regarding the effective use of school materials:

"To support the curriculum, new text-books had been developed and equipment for the technical, vocational and practical subjects was required. Procurement of these inputs was delayed when government failed to meet World Bank terms of effectiveness for the release of funds. Most students spent the first year without the benefit of textbooks or equipment. In a few cases schools taught the entire course without resource materials."

[see Chapter 4, Case study 3]

Cabinet). It is unrealistic to expect commitment and honesty from junior officers if the behaviour of leaders is questionable. An honest and transparent management system, both in style and substance, is an essential feature of PMG.

For governments to be effective and to develop their management capacity, national development plans need to be drawn up and, at the very least, used as a target for the future. Such development plans will commonly be derived from an open political election manifesto in the form of a mission statement or, frequently, a public commissioned report which becomes adopted as policy (Box 2.13). If the published plans require radical change then a PMG will seek the consent of its electorate before making such alterations.

Box 2.13

National policy into action

The development of Community Junior Secondary Schools (CJSS) in Botswana bears testimony to the value of having a national plan which commits government to pragmatic expressions of concepts of equity, participation and partnership.

"The CJSS system was established in line with the following recommendations of the National Policy on Education (1977):

- ◆ to increase access to Junior Secondary Schools and make education equitable,
- ◆ to increase community participation in education through government and community co-operation in the financing and management of schools.

As a result of this partnership venture the number of CJSS has risen from 34 in 1985 to over 200 in 1996."

[see Chapter 4, Case study 2]

2.6 PMG strategies and issues

This final section briefly summarises the main points of the chapter. Also, by way of conclusion, it affirms the concept of a mission approach to planning for effective HRD.

1 Prerequisites for PMG

A PMG is predicated upon sound leadership. In the first instance, political commitment and good example are required at the very highest level (Presidential, Prime Ministerial and

The roles, relationships and functions of government and bureaucracy must be distinctly and clearly defined. Normally the role of government is to establish a national legislative and financial framework. A bureaucratic system is required to facilitate, implement and disseminate policy. The day-to-day implementation of policy in education, health, population growth, agriculture, women's affairs, youth affairs, labour and manpower is the proper function of individuals, local communities, NGOs and the private sector (Box 2.14).

At each level, publicly accessible monitoring, evaluation and accountability systems must be put into operation. So that relationships between the various groupings may flourish healthily, there should be full consultation at all levels and with all stake-holders, from grassroots to national government.

Box 2.14

PMG and educational administration

The management and administration of education frequently provide a classical example of how a PMG and its community transform policy into action. The following description is from Botswana but is typical of many other countries.

"The Ministry of Education has the major responsibility of laying down the policy and legislative framework under which all schools operate. Headteachers, in view of their professional training, are expected to handle the day to day running of the school and an Accounting Officer, appointed by the Ministry of Education, oversees the control and utilisation of funds, stores and buildings.

"Boards of Governors are the formally constituted governing bodies of Community Junior Secondary Schools (Education Act, 1986), and are responsible for the administration, management and supervision of the schools. They are expected to provide the local support which may be needed by the school. Recruited from the local community, they are better able to interpret its needs and concerns, assess its capability to provide support services and effectively motivate community commitment to the development of its schools."

[see Chapter 4, Case study 2]

A PMG will ensure the creation of an enabling environment for both internal and external private investment.

The modern management of government is dynamic in the sense that many approaches and modalities can be applied across sectors which hitherto have been demarcated by apparently vertical boundaries. To improve efficiency and effectiveness, cross-cutting and multi-sectoral approaches to the management of government need to be understood and introduced. This may require changes in both working culture and practices.

2 Constraints upon PMG

Anything that challenges the essential prerequisites for PMG may be regarded as a threat. For example:

- ◆ Lack of a clearly articulated up-to-date national development plan and/or failure to take national development plans into account when planning;
- ◆ Making radical changes to the public manifesto or mission without seeking the consent of the electorate;
- ◆ Lack of capacity in manpower planning;
- ◆ Lack of capacity and/or disregard for the outcomes of research, monitoring and review;
- ◆ Inter-ministerial rivalry leading to disputes about allocation of resources;
- ◆ Lack of flexibility in the face of change;
- ◆ Lack of consultation with stake-holders.

There are other factors which also place constraints upon the operation of PMG. In particular:

- ◆ The seemingly endless and very expensive changes in fashion and use of IT in the management of labour, manpower and other HRD interventions;
- ◆ Corruption in various forms arising out of public servants using official positions for their own benefit and self-interest rather than community welfare;
- ◆ Unproductive/ineffective government departments, agencies and officers;
- ◆ Inability to decide on the "right size" of government and the consequent inertia of civil service reform when down-sizing, retraining and redeployment are proposed as measures to reduce inefficiencies;
- ◆ Unplanned high impact events such as natural disasters, wars, population migration, repatriation and similar uncontrollable external forces, any of which may contribute to an economic collapse.

Practical proposals for reducing the effect of these and other constraints are contained in the Audit Tool provided in Chapter 3.

3 The case for a mission approach

The mission approach to human resource development is typified by an initial presentation, often in the form of a political manifesto, in which a government-to-be sets out its vision. If elected on its manifesto, the government will regard this as a mandate to introduce legislation which transforms vision into reality through a variety of target-oriented programmes.

Most governments adopt a mission approach to HRD issues. In practice, however, the mission may vary from being a broad based ideological "catch-all" uncontentious statement, to a precise objectives-led development plan for a fixed duration. In other cases, a more process-based approach is adopted in which strategic initiatives are defined as the process unfolds and in which many branches of government are likely to be active (Box 2.15).

Box 2.15

A mission approach

In New Zealand, the government is attempting to introduce a mission approach to its work. A medium term plan (MTP) is developed which identifies strategic results areas (SRA) to be achieved in 5 or 6 six years (a time-scale which, interestingly, goes beyond the current parliamentary term).

The MTP is managed by the department of the Prime Minister which acts as a focal point for departments carrying out activities to achieve the SRA. There is cross-sectoral collaboration between departments and the SRAs are translated to key strategic results.

In addition, each department contributes to policy formulation. So, for example, the Ministry for Women's Affairs, although small, is highly influential since all government policies must reflect consultations with this Ministry.

New Zealand delegate, Malacca

Whatever the style, it is generally the case that a mission approach requires a genuine investment in intellectual capital and an augmented flow of resources. It also requires a co-ordinated plan and monitoring process, often under the direct authority of the President or Prime Minister.

The next chapter introduces a PMG-HRD Audit Tool, an instrument which, in a practical way, aims to translate the preceding discussion into operational mode by interpreting HRD issues in PGM terms. Chapter 4 contains full versions of the six case studies referred to in this chapter.

Chapter 3 PMG-HRD audit tool (Inspection list and tool kit)

3.1 HRD vision and contract

Human resource development is a continuing process. In a rapidly changing global scenario, a basic precondition for HRD, in the context of professionally managed government, is a broadly shared vision of a country's socio-economic development by all political parties. In some cases, such as Malaysia Vision 2020, the vision is articulated in a political statement and validated by due electoral process.

An initial aim of PMG in HRD will be to arrive at a national consensus about what is to be achieved. This can be seen, for example, in the education and health initiatives of the Child to Child programme in Zambia, the immunisation and literacy programmes in India and the Public Service 2000 programme in Canada.

Each country adopts strategies relevant to its own specific context, in order to achieve its vision. The degree to which the strategies will involve direct government initiatives or utilise a more participative approach is a central decision. Articulation of an agreed vision of socio-economic development should be expressed in a binding social contract. The 'vision' and 'contract' together provide the rationale for HRD and the work frame adopted usually employs a multi-sectoral approach in order to link political statements with policy formulation and implementation. This presupposes that there are clear and commonly shared ideas about the role of government in the legislative and executive processes.

These ideas are developed overleaf and are made practical in the audit tool which comprises the bulk of this chapter.

3.2 A holistic approach to HRD

Foundation for the Future proposes that a holistic approach to human resource development is both an essential and an effective driving force for development. The holistic approach incorporates five key strategies:

- ◆ professionally managed government
- ◆ partnerships with NGOs and the private sector
- ◆ priority for gender issues
- ◆ using technology
- ◆ mobilising resources

These five key strategies are applied in a concerted manner to five essential core components:

- ◆ education and training
- ◆ primary health care
- ◆ nutrition at adequate levels
- ◆ population policies
- ◆ employment

This is an all-encompassing perspective of HRD which emphasises the importance of personal empowerment as a major ingredient in the development process. Consequently, the holistic approach places emphasis on:

- a consideration for all aspects of all sectors of the five key strategies
- b involvement, from the outset, of the representatives of all key stakeholders in analysis, planning, implementation and evaluation
- c co-ordination with other sectors
- d partnerships with international organisations, non-government organisations, stakeholders and the community

3.3 Professionally managed government

Professionally managed government (PMG), as it relates to HRD, has already been discussed in Chapters 1 and 2. In summary, PMG may be defined as government which meets the following four essential factors.

1 Political will and good governance

Political will and good governance require:

- ◆ unanimous political commitment and coherence in policy formulation. Government should play a catalytic role and act as a facilitator in the development process,
- ◆ consultative long term perspectives of the planning process,
- ◆ establishment of a Ministry or a division for human resource development activities,
- ◆ adequate resources allocated for human resource development as a top priority,
- ◆ anticipation of and responsiveness to pace of change and problems encountered during implementation,

- ◆ provision for the institutionalisation of democracy and bureaucracy.

2 Decentralisation, devolution and monitoring

Government must be prepared to devolve power without diluting or obscuring its accountability. This requires the development of effective monitoring processes.

- ◆ Decentralisation is a major strategy in a professionally managed government. It must, however, take into account the size, cultural diversity, customs and political organisation of a country. Effective decentralisation will avoid wastage, delays and inefficiency.
- ◆ Central government should deal with legislative and policy formulation and the local government or community-based institutions should deal with delivery systems. To deliver services effectively the local governmental machinery and manpower should be properly resourced.
- ◆ An environment should be created where the NGOs and the private sector can act as partners with government for the delivery of services. It is necessary, however, to articulate clearly the roles and responsibilities of the partners in order to avoid political interference, inefficiency or lack of effectiveness.
- ◆ Government should be sufficiently responsive to be able to identify needs and anticipate problems.
- ◆ Co-ordination with multi-sectoral institutions must be made effective.
- ◆ Monitoring and feed back in 'real time' is a necessary component of PMG. Thus delays in reporting must be avoided and capability at local levels must be strengthened to implement, manage and respond to change.

3 Accountability and transparency

A PMG must provide adequate scope for accountability and transparency.

- ◆ Mechanisms must be established to ensure political accountability. e.g. Parliamentary Standing Committees could be established to review and provide feedback on the performance of government, with the results being open to public scrutiny.

- ◆ Politicians must refrain from politicising the processes of administration.
- ◆ Public sector managers must be held accountable for their performance and for the extent to which their programmes achieve set objectives.
- ◆ Management must be participatory, consultative and decentralised.
- ◆ The concept of 'good governance' must be comprehended and implemented by government.
- ◆ Provision must be present for research, monitoring and evaluation of the efficiency and professionalism of government functionaries.
- ◆ Systematic measures should be taken to prevent or eliminate corruption.

4 Quality

Achievement of high quality in a PMG requires the acceptance of the need for developing an all-embracing culture of quality and willingness to invest resources in establishing appropriate mechanisms.

Evaluation of quality is necessary in order to ensure high standards of governance. Relevant standards of quality must be identified, developed and applied. This requires appropriate mechanisms for:

- ◆ defining quality specifications,
- ◆ constructing a quality assurance system,
- ◆ instituting practical measures for quality control.

3.4 The audit tool

Many of the above points in addition to those in Chapter 2 are incorporated in the Inspection List and Tool Kit which appears on pages 22 to 37. The tool kit identifies areas of intervention and defines prescribed indicators in the first two columns, Factors and Indicators. These intentions may be threatened in a number of ways which are outlined in the third column, Constraints. The fourth column suggests how strategic Needs may be met. Table. 3.1, below, is a summary of the tool kit.

The tool kit may be used when carrying out an audit to check whether the essential elements

Table 3.1. Inspection list and tool kit (model for PMG-HRD audit tool)

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
An agreed vision of socio-economic development validated by electoral process	Policy statements by major political parties leading to a binding social contract, that has clearly stated objectives	Areas of conflict between vision and policy articulation and implementation capability Inadequate human, financial and material resources	Responsive structures and processes of governance in the context of an agreed vision and an integrative use of resources

of HRD and its underlying principles are being realised. Such an audit might contribute to the preparation of a national human development report, or a country profile; it may assist in setting targets and defining national strategies.

The instrument, or PMG-HRD Audit Tool, explores in turn the five key strategies for HRD which have already been discussed in this report.

Each strategy is underpinned by a related key question, responses to which may be elicited by applying the audit tool to specific circumstances. The instrument should therefore be used for identifying appropriate strategies for human resource development, for forewarning of likely pressure points and for obtaining guidance on measures required to overcome constraints and make HRD inputs effective.

Key strategy 1: Professionally managed government

How effectively does government manage and facilitate human resource development?

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
1.1 Commitment			
Existence of a firm political will and total commitment to the development of human resources	National policy statement emphasising centrality of HRD and acknowledging the rights and responsibilities of the individual as both beneficiary of and contributor to the development process Assignment of overall responsibility on oversight of HRD activities to a high-level power centre within Government	Politicians may take a narrow view of priorities on economic and political considerations adversely affecting HRD Short-term political considerations for immediate gains may conflict with long-term goals based on inter-ventions requiring long gestation period for results	Sensitise politicians to the needs of PMG applied to HRD, [via good case studies] emphasising long term and sustainable effort Use high-level meetings such as <i>Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting (CHOGM)</i> to stimulate commitment
Commitment to a continuing process of evaluation and change in Govt structures to ensure continuity of implementation of HRD programmes	Adequate levels of resources (financial, material, human) allocated to the implementation of HRD programmes Clear frames, targets to be delivered and budget lines set out and endorsed by highest levels of authority		Use current international emphasis on social sector development initiatives to institute commitment
1.2 Comprehensiveness			
A holistic approach taken to HRD	Inter-ministerial committees and/or HRD task forces HRD policy and programmes formulated and operated within the context of a national development plan endorsed at highest possible level Multi-sectoral aspect of HRD programmes considered and understood by policy planners and implementers	Lack of awareness of activities and problems in other sectors and their impact on HRD policy and programmes	Inter-sectoral inter-action e.g. dialogue, seminars and training programmes to broaden knowledge and understanding of purpose of HRD policy and programme initiative
1.3 Accountability and transparency			
Policy-makers' and policy implementers' responsiveness to feedback from review processes, so that adjustments can be made to take account of failures or undesirable effects or side effects occurring during implementation	A strategic plan for HRD targets, performance standards, including time scales Detailed information publicly available about the objectives of HRD programmes being implemented	Tendency for both political and administrative functionaries of the government to maintain secrecy to protect their interests in contravention of open society goals	Establish clear demarcation line protecting both need for confidentiality during negotiations leading to policy formulation and need for transparency for operation once policy has been approved

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
1.3 Accountability and transparency (continued)			
Review processes should ensure accountability in a transparent way	Well-defined arrangements established for mid-term review of the HRD programmes, e.g. parliamentary standing committees, performance audit and continuing dialogue with parties involved		Encourage continuous research, monitoring and evaluation departmentally and by independent organisations (e.g. universities, the private sector) for validation of assumptions, processes and impacts
Politicians refrain from interfering in the implementation processes or diverting allocated resources	Politicians establish and practice an agreed code of conduct and provide a positive linkage between strategic area initiatives and an agreed vision of the future	Priorities for personal or party advancement may conflict with PMG/HRD objectives	Special programmes for the orientation and motivation of politicians towards concept of 'good governance'
Politicians ensure that, at all levels of Government, an inter-active process for policy formulation and co-ordination for implementation of PMG-led HRD policy is facilitated	Bureaucracy follows a code of conduct and gives public interest top priority Systems for recruiting and promoting staff on the basis of merit	Political and public reluctance to reduce patronage Communication and co-ordination between Ministries, departments and agencies are not at an effective level	Establish/strengthen mechanisms for audit and accountability Establish rules and codes which defines the relationship between politicians and administrators
Politicians undertake to ensure that Government is structured in such a manner that local level initiative for HRD can be encouraged and promoted within the national policy framework	Political appointments made only on a limited scale and according to agreed rules Systematic pre-service and/or in-service training Clear and published criteria for the selection, evaluation and promotion of staff based on human resource competence Decentralisation of functions and the delegation of responsibility with attendant authority and resource accessibility	Senior bureaucrats' reluctance to accept new approaches Politicians and bureaucracy favour centralisation for effective control over implementation process failing to realise cost of interference and delay in the decision-making process	Rules of operation clearly defined to reduce conflict, encourage initiative and accountability at all levels and allow for professionally managed communication and co-ordination
1.4 Research			
Recognition of the fact that the process of identifying HRD needs involves research prior to the formulation of policy. This should involve not only the examination of data bases but also consultation with key implementers and with stakeholders targeted for development	Financial and human resources, identified both internally and externally, made available to research agencies on the basis of competency to carry out research Data bases compiled, accessible and available for analysis by competent agencies	Political reluctance to commission research on some topics, e.g. sexual behaviour, or to accept or act on research findings Reliability of data and appropriateness of methodology may not be above question	The augmentation of research capabilities in the area of HRD

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
1.4 Research (continued)			
	Appropriate methods of consultation, e.g. questionnaires or interviews, used to identify the needs and problems which HRD programmes are to address The use of appropriate data to inform opinion of both the deliverers and recipients of HRD programmes at all levels in the supply chain	Inappropriate methods of consultation may minimise the desired effect of a participative approach	Participatory methods of research and consultation need to be clearly understood by researchers and stakeholders Validation of research outcomes needs to be undertaken
1.5 Policy formulation			
The process of systematic policy formulation takes account of the views of all parties concerned	Adequate information about the situation, and a full range of alternative options with information about costs/benefits of each Cabinet decision or parliamentary approval giving appropriate status to the HRD programme Dialogue takes place with: ◆ Key stakeholders in the implementation chain ◆ Other sectors which can/should be involved in sharing interests, expertise and resources ◆ Inter- and non-governmental organisations	Policy makers' reluctance to engage in genuine consultation Poor quality of policy analysts/advisers Stakeholders are identified in a biased or expedient manner Absence of effective lines of communication to create the desired milieu for an appropriate level of co-ordination	Periodic consultation with consumers and other stakeholders Clear procedures for implementation Clear monitoring and evaluation procedures so that HRD programmes can be adjusted as necessary
1.6 Policy approval			
The policy needs to be approved at the highest level to reflect effectively the commitment to HRD	Cabinet decisions or parliamentary approval giving desired priority to the HRD programme	Lack of time or the absence of clear priorities due to heavy Government workloads Competition from other sectors for scarce resources in the absence of understanding of priorities and inter-linkages may create discontinuities	Reinforce political will by clarifying priorities Negotiate priorities for HRD, using the weight of high-level political endorsement
1.7 Policy implementation			
Detailed planning exercises carried out prior to implementation of HRD programmes	Planning meetings held at central, regional and sub-regional levels or with reps of other sectors, agencies and target groups	Tendency of central Government to use a top-down approach for administrative convenience	Comprehensive arrangements for training to create an awareness of HRD issues and demerits of a top-down approach

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
1.7 Policy implementation (continued)			
The planning process takes full account of the financial, material and human resources available for the proper implementation of HRD	Clear instructions and guidelines set out before implementation An implementation plan involving resources and agreed timescales, set out in advance of implementation Presence of MIS		Comprehensive communication strategies to facilitate policy planning and implementation
1.8 Efficiency and cost effectiveness			
A comprehensive system of <i>Quality Assurance</i> applied to PMG for HRD Resources used with maximum efficiency	Systems and regulations exerting constant downward pressure on costs A detailed <i>Quality Specification</i> which states the criteria to be used to assess the way in which HRD activities are managed by Govt A <i>Quality Assurance System</i> which checks the products, the outcomes of HRD activities as well as the intermediate stages and processes themselves <i>Quality Control</i> procedures adopted to sample and measure the various attributes required by the quality specification and quality assurance system Mechanisms within institutions for reviewing both the costs and the efficiency of HRD programmes	Inadequate information about resource use A lack of familiarity with concepts of Total Quality Management (TQM) or similar methodologies Lack of commitment to TQM Lack of experience of quality control procedures	Commitment by leaders to a shared vision of quality Assistance for the identification and development of practical and realistic quality indicators Performance indicators clearly spelt out for providers and functionaries in the supply chain Training of HRD staff in required techniques of quality control

Key strategy 2: Partnerships with NGOs and the private sector

How effectively and professionally are partnerships with inter-governmental and non-governmental organisations and the private sector managed by government?

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
2.1 Policy			
Policies to facilitate Government and NGO partnership arrangements for the achievement of HRD	National policies developed in consultation with partners, stating explicitly their involvement, roles and responsibilities	Policy statements are not always explicit Dialogue with partners at the planning stage may sometimes be inadequate Policies may be unrealistic given national resources and capability	Sharing policy documents and case studies on partnership schemes Creation of a framework or medium for dialogue at policy formulation stage
2.2 Legislation			
Legislation present and enforceable that ensures partners contribute as agreed and are accountable. Incentives may be as important as legislation in this respect Clear laws regulating NGOs that are neither ambivalent nor restrictive	Government works with social partners to formulate legislation relating to: ◆ levies on the private sector to secure resources for training ◆ exploitation, e.g. in apprenticeship schemes ◆ rules governing the management of schools, e.g. church/state relationships ◆ licensing arrangements for the operation of schools or hospitals by NGOs or the Private Sector ◆ incentives to encourage partnerships	Ad hoc arrangements established for reasons of political expediency Systems may be small enough to have managed without legislation in the past The legislative process is costly and may be perceived as restrictive in some cases	Model legislation required An enabling legislative environment created to facilitate collaboration with partners
2.3 Structures			
Appropriate structures in place to facilitate dialogue among social partners Appropriate structures established for smooth operation of joint ventures	Regular meetings and consultations as an integral part of work of policy makers and Government officials with specific agenda for strategic decisions Meetings set at appointed times allowing flexibility for extraordinary meetings Boards/Trustees appointed with explicit terms of reference, for example, for the operation of schools	Consultation done on an ad hoc basis Social partners involved only in implementation phase Lack of feeling of ownership hinders sustainability of projects Political interference in operation of boards and parastatals	More effective leaders among NGOs Greater involvement of women in leadership role Basic commitment to partnership approach

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
2.4 Capacity			
Governments and social partners have capability to develop and implement partnership schemes	Personnel trained in areas such as negotiating, budgeting and managing information systems Training undertaken at various levels in administrative system	Lack of trained personnel available to manage projects effectively Wastage and inefficiency because of poor management Tensions between the culture of voluntary services and the requirements of highly skilled professionals in the leadership of NGOs	Training of Government officials and personnel from NGOs and the private sector in managing projects and in securing and using resources effectively Professionalism in management of NGOs
2.5 Co-ordination and management			
Mechanisms in place to co-ordinate partnership schemes	Mechanisms facilitating the flow of and access to information Regular meetings of monitoring committees comprising representatives of various stakeholders Use made of available technology to facilitate co-ordination	Relationships unequal or not based on mutual trust Conflicts of interest amongst partners Inadequate flow of information amongst partners Lack of effective monitoring by the Government to avoid unnecessary duplication or ensure adequate coverage Personnel not trained in the use of tools available for management and co-ordination	Clarification of goals and objectives Management structures that favour and reward effective implementation as the higher priority A co-ordinating mechanism to avoid duplication of activities between NGOs and government Training in the use of available technology with which to co-ordinate and manage joint projects
2.6 Monitoring and evaluation			
Development of a national capability for effective monitoring and evaluation Evaluation included as an integral component of all projects Feedback used for improvement of projects	A joint monitoring system: Government-appointed and/or independent bodies assigned the task of monitoring and evaluation Trained personnel delegated to supervise and monitor projects Changes made at appropriate stages in projects based on feedback received	Monitoring and evaluation procedures not built into projects Insufficient personnel trained to undertake monitoring and evaluation	Training of personnel in monitoring and evaluation Impact evaluation of NGO programmes and partnerships to provide feedback
2.7 Accountability			
Mechanisms for ensuring the accountability of Governments and social partners	Appointment of NGO and Government officials to supervise projects	Bureaucratic delays in disbursements, auditing or reporting	Institutional capacity building to promote accountability

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
2.7 Accountability (continued)			
	Appointment of parliamentary bodies, e.g. a public accounts committee Contracting of services (e.g. for auditing purposes) Regular reports on use of funds Agreed procedures for disbursement of funds and for auditing and reporting on outcomes Internal advisory and support units Independent citizens committee for evaluation and performance audit	Suspicion of Government's motives by partners Lack of dialogue between partners in establishing accountability systems	Creation of more rigorous systems for monitoring, evaluating and auditing programmes executed by social partners on behalf of Government and open reporting of the results

Key strategy 3: Priority for gender issues

How far is Government succeeding in giving priority to gender issues in its HRD programmes?

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
3.1 Mainstreaming gender			
Gender issues as an integral component of national development and HRD policies	National gender-sensitive HRD policy in place National data and Government statistics routinely collected are disaggregated by gender and age Explicit statements on inequality and gender balance	Social and cultural barriers Capacity to handle the gender issues appropriately may be missing	Mainstreaming of gender issues in all policies as a precursor to HRD initiatives Research on specific gender impact of HRD policies
3.2 Commitment			
Political commitment to gender balance Government and policy makers sensitive to gender issues in policy planning and implementation Affirmative action to develop a national capacity in gender training, gender planning, policy appraisal and impact assessment, gender management and accounting system Maintenance of family values and structures in societies where traditional gender roles are changing in employment, childcare and domestic work Equal participation by girls in education	Legislation to ensure equity in education, employment and human rights Country has signed Convention for Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) Women in Government and politics with access through Women's Unit/Bureau/Ministry to policy planning processes at all levels Gender planning principles implemented and gender budgeting and accounting practised Women's NGOs active in advocacy and development programmes Legislation and codes of practice to facilitate parental leave and childcare facilities Campaigns to create awareness on eliminating family and domestic violence	Lack of commitment by judiciary and/or policing authorities to implement legislation Cultural and religious factors determining the relative status of women Restrictive resource allocation to gender-related programmes which impedes implementation of programmes Lack of gender management systems in national Women's Ministry and in all relevant sectors	Model legislation Build capacity in gender planning, accounting and management and implement strategies to reduce cultural and traditional factors Participation in gender issues in international meetings and appropriate implementation and follow-up of programmes Training in gender management and systems introduced in women's Ministry and other relevant Ministries Programmes to advocate positive participation by both partners in family and household responsibilities Rehabilitation programmes for the perpetrators of family and domestic violence

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
3.2 Commitment (continued)			
Participation by girls and women in science, technology and non-traditional occupations	Enrolment and completion rates of girls in primary, secondary and tertiary education Enrolment and results in science and technology education disaggregated by gender Tracking strategies to fully engage girls in science and technology learning Enrolment of women in science and technology at tertiary level Positive action for women's participation in decision-making	High opportunity cost of participation No science and technology education in women's secondary and tertiary education institutes Attitudinal barriers Lack of support for women's organisations and/or lack of effective advocacy	Incentives to families for the enrolment of girls in education Gender sensitive science and technology programmes and teaching strategies Guidance for girls in science and technology education Affirmative action recruitment practices in non-traditional occupations Action for anti-discrimination and targeting positive progress for women
3.3 Collaboration			
NGO networks utilised effectively for reaching women at grassroots levels	Involvement of NGOs with positive track record on gender issues in partnership with Government for delivery of key services (e.g. non-formal education and primary health care) Consultative process to determine gender needs e.g. gender sensitive curriculum in all educational programmes	Inadequate availability of women in NGO work. Where field level workers of NGOs are not women, outreach programmes may be difficult in traditional societies	Consultation by and with women and women's organisations during policy planning at ministerial and departmental level Improve capability of NGOs to develop and manage programmes for women in countries where they form a marginalised group
3.4 Image promotion			
Gender positive role models for men and women	High, positive, public profile for women and men who have made outstanding contributions to enhance the role of their gender in a changing society	Gender perceived as meaning 'women-only' with a consequent backlash against women's issues, a perceived marginalisation of men and threats to male employment opportunities	Awards programmes for achievement in gender issues Positive media coverage of gender issues
Acceptance of the need for gender equity is broadly based in Government and society	Women's involvement is seen as supportive of family development, vertical and lateral mobility, better nutritional status of children, better educational and economic opportunities for children	Women's involvement in education and employment is attributed as the cause of negative social outcomes, e.g. divorce and family breakdown, neglect of children and domestic responsibility and/or juvenile delinquency	Public campaign to promote gender awareness and facilitate dialogue, at all levels, about the changing roles and responsibilities of women and men Research on the impact of changing gender roles and social change

Key strategy 4: Utilisation of technology

Is government using appropriate technologies fully and effectively in its pursuit of human resource development?

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
4.1 Policy			
Countries have explicit policies for science and technology	Policy statements on technology published, regularly reviewed and updated Standing body established for technology evaluation and advice, with formal link to Government policy makers	Policy statements not explicit and therefore difficult to implement Policies over-ambitious given the resources available Roles and responsibilities not assigned	Establishment and effective operation of a <i>National Council for Science and Technology</i> and a <i>National Council of Technology Transfer</i>
Mechanisms present for the use of technology to facilitate the formulation and implementation of policies	The presence of a well-defined network for gathering information into a computerised data base and for the analysis of output. This may be a free standing system dealing with one specific area, or be part of a comprehensive MIS Policy documents prepared by a Ministry in consultation with other Ministries, the private sector and other partners with vested interests Established labour market information systems and man-power information system for educational planning	Lack of knowledge of skills in operating a data base Lack of personnel to regularly collect input and verify data Lack of understanding by key potential users of the capabilities and limitation of the specific system Presence of valueless or incorrect information in data system prior to computerisation	Training in the use of technology to manage and use information
Modern hardware and software for Information Technology used by management	Computer models that can be used for analysis and forecasts Presence of local capacity to utilise technology Internal advisory and support units	Lack of trained personnel to develop and manage an information system Inadequate use of viable information systems	Training in systems design and the management of IT Training for IT management and support personnel
4.2 Appropriate use of technology			
Politicians and administrators sensitised to developments in relevant technologies including: sustainable, renewable and environmentally sound energy	Govt departments receive regular technical updates from in-house experts and/or external bodies, NGOs, universities and international sources	Lack of appreciation of modern technology, particularly information technology	Training courses to sensitise policy makers to role uses and impact of technology

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
4.2 Appropriate use of technology (continued)			
generation; essential urban development technologies such as transportation, sanitation and waste management; new technologies in agriculture and industry; modern information systems including technology hardware and software, which is used to ensure the rapid and efficient collection, transfer and analysis of data relating to HRD Politicians and administrators value information technology such as MIS and rapid telecommunication networks which are used to inform and facilitate decision making but not as a substitute for policy formulation Politicians and administrators understand and know that modern management technologies are used as software tools to improve efficiency and performance	Established MIS in place An initial data base constituted and its accuracy verified Regular and frequent updating of the existing data base Key users of MIS have sufficient training to understand the mode of operation, uses, capabilities and limitations of the specific system adopted Key users of MIS able to access and examine the data base without constraint Management systems such as Total Quality Management, Performance Appraisal, etc. have been adopted and all staff trained in the use of these tools	Legal problems associated with systems (copyright) Rate of change in technology Lack of practice in using science and technology Lack of training in the use of technology and a lack of resources for local adaptation and maintenance of equipment	Appropriate policies for the use of technology and information Courses to train workforce in science and technology in collaboration with government Capacity building for development and adaptation of software locally
4.3 Capacity			
Governmental structures in place for science and technology Governments adequately staffed to handle technology	Department or Ministry assigned to deal with science and technology Science and technology professionals employed directly or co-opted in advisory bodies in Government service Science and technology indicators have been developed and are used in monitoring	Lack of co-ordination among Ministries and departments Academic community set apart from Government activities Lack of trained people and resources for science and technology in Government services	Mechanisms established and training conducted to promote co-ordination Funding to strengthen the resource base of institutions that provide training in science and technology in collaboration with governments Scholarships for higher level management training
4.4 Technology transfer			
Institutional system to monitor and evaluate technology transfer	Personnel trained in science and technology to advise Governments on investments with technology implications Skilled personnel to ensure that imported technology contributes to and sustains development	Lack of personnel trained in specific areas to influence decisions Equipment imposed on countries as part of aid arrangements	Government support for apprenticeship schemes Post basic training courses to create and maintain a pool of technicians

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
4.4 Technology transfer (continued)			
	Presence of local absorptive capacity for introduction of new technology and re-engineering	Lack of trained persons to repair equipment at local level	Concern for effects on environment
Systems in place to monitor effective use of technology and the technological changes that affect HRD	Monitoring systems in place that include technological inputs, outputs and outcomes for example health of school children and other school records on data base	Recurrent expenditure difficult to sustain Inadequate facilities for industrial apprenticeship	Cost-benefit analysis before putting monitoring systems in place Personnel trained in the field of science and technology to advise and participate in monitoring mechanisms, e.g. provision of computer facilities in clinics and schools especially in rural areas
Governments use available computer facilities for monitoring and tracking	Government support for apprenticeship schemes	Inadequate opportunity in technology education based on the labour market needs analysis for relevant science and technology education leading to mismatch in job market	Explicit policies and framework for partnership arrangements with industry
Governments provide an adequate science and technology education as a foundation for the use of technology in developmental activities	Concessions to private sector that provide training and facilities Provision of incentives for research and development activities		
Governments provide an enabling environment for partnership arrangements with industry in the development and use of technology	A relevant science and technology education curriculum for basic education	Technology education curricula do not match current practices in industry and commerce	Strengthening science, technology and mathematics education at teachers' colleges
Explicit Government policies relating to computer education	Maximum use made of available resources in schools Training supplemented through partnerships with the business community	Ad hoc arrangements made to introduce computer literacy Lack of skilled personnel to deliver computer education	Introduction of computer and technology studies Training of teachers for computer education
Appropriate technology to improve access to and the quality of education	Targets set for the achievement of computer literacy and competencies in the use of computers Distance education using available technology being implemented Education programmes developed for broadcasting Teacher educators and teachers trained in the use of available technology	Lack of infrastructure for adequate delivery of distance education programmes Lack of trained personnel for effective use of appropriate technology Lack of support from media industry Fear of technology	Development of local capacity to produce materials for broadcasting and distance education Introduction of technology culture
Mechanisms to encourage the use of indigenous technology	Village schemes for use of appropriate technologies such as solar energy, e.g. for cooking or refrigeration Projects with NGOs to promote healthy life styles and the effective use of available technology	Superstition and myths	Identification and effective use of indigenous technology Development of projects with community to foster sense of ownership

Key strategy 5: Mobilisation of resources

How effectively is PMG being applied to the mobilisation of all possible types of resources in pursuing its HRD goals?

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
5.1 Policy			
Explicit policies for Government expenditure and allocation of resources	Government policy statements available	Lack of legislative support for Government policy	Enabling legislation
Procedures for determining priorities	Explicit rules and regulations governing expenditure	Lack of internal and external agreement to changes in patterns of resource allocation	Agreed vision for development
Appropriate legislation for allocation of resources	Professional management to disburse funds in line with implementation scheme to keep pace with project plans	Inflexible procedures for accessing resources administrative bottlenecks	Transparent but flexible rules for accessing resources
Prioritisation of resource use with built-in flexibility with attendant review			
5.2 Government resources			
Governments structured so as to optimise use of resources in implementation of HRD initiatives	Departments and Ministries adequately staffed to deal with financing of HRD projects	Rigid budget systems	Trained personnel at senior levels in research information about impact of resource allocation
		Highly compartmentalised departments and Ministries	Innovative financial management
Scope for reallocation of resources among sectors and within a given sector	Flexible budget management adequately controlled at central level	Delayed/inadequate release of funds leading to an over-run in costs and time	Prioritisation and identification of resource funding and allocation
5.3 Extra-governmental resources			
Availability of extra-governmental resources for HRD by non-governmental interests	Incentives 'through relief' and other benefits for private sector investment which supports Government's HRD plan	Lack of acceptance of incentives by trade unions and vested interest groups	Prosperous private sector; well-developed NGOs
Government incentives for other agencies to contribute to HRD projects	Systematic arrangements for contributions from social partners and/or explicit policies for cost-sharing	Private sector reluctant to finance infrastructure costs	Concessions given to private sector and NGOs that are engaged in activities for support of HRD programmes
Government support from international donor agencies	Special personnel trained to manage programmes funded by external agencies, particularly those related to HRD	Lack of sustainability after project completion due to inadequate resources for recurrent and maintenance costs	A cadre of qualified local staff who have skills or who can be trained on the job in effective project supplementation, aid management, monitoring and evaluation
		Debt burden already excessive	Restructuring of debt and provision of relief in innovative ways
		Lack of adequately trained personnel	Activate non-utilised and under-utilised social resources

Factors	Indicators	Constraints	Needs
5.3 Extra-governmental resources (continued)			
Commitment to promotion of privatisation and increased inward investment and community involvement Recognition that resource contribution need not just be financial, but includes human, technical and material	Legislation and fiscal arrangements encouraging action and contribution by voluntary organisations and citizens Close involvement of experts, NGOs, donors, community workers in planning and implementation	Political opposition to privatisation Inadequate controls by Governments Top-down administration too centralised and restrictive	Affirmative political climate An enabling environment for private sector and local community support to HRD projects
5.4 Quality and efficiency			
Maximum efficiency and cost-effectiveness in delivery of HRD programmes by Govt Adequate control over quality of services provided by the private sector	Administrators receive regular training and updating of skills in resource management Decisions are decentralised and/or devolved to the lowest possible levels to shorten lines of communication Effective monitoring and regulatory systems in place	Restrictive practices not modified or removed Lack of monitoring and accountability to a national monitoring body	Acceptance of the culture of TQM Deregulation and devolution of specific responsibilities to NGOs and the private sector Mechanism to establish monitoring, accountability and regulatory systems
5.5 Safeguards			
Government commitment to detect, prevent and eliminate corruption Political and institutional capacity to detect, prevent and eliminate corruption	Transparent behaviour by leading politicians and officials to provide role models of non-corrupt socially committed functionaries Existence of institutions such as: ◆ Parliamentary Committees ◆ Ombudsman ◆ Citizens' Complaints Bureau Penalties imposed upon those found to be corrupt through an independent judiciary and a free responsible press Access to information by legislation Legal constraints on the influence of private sector pressure groups	Widespread corruption at all levels of Government making the conduct of independent enquiries difficult Institutions inadequately staffed Inability of the Courts to convict those accused of corruption Non-competitive remuneration of public servants Laws not enforced in practice	More efficient and effective Government to strengthen the office of controller and Auditor General and institute a quality auditing system A strong lead from the Head of Government Resolute and incorruptible judges, investigators, auditors etc. Laws to enforce declaration of assets by politicians and bureaucrats Citizens' watch on corruption Public and media support for anti-corruption legislation

Chapter 4 Case studies

4.1 Preamble

This chapter contains case studies from six countries which indicate some of the ways in which aspects of human resource development are being managed by governments. The studies show how strategies utilising partnership, devolution, decentralisation, consultation and management of change may improve work opportunities for disadvantaged groups, provide increased access to basic education, establish vocational training and redress gender imbalances in science and technology.

The report from **Bangladesh** describes a resource development and employment project specifically targeted at family groups to provide them with functional literacy, improved health opportunities and skills training. The report also illustrates how the government is prepared to use 'NGO ways' together with selection indices to improve the effectiveness of project management.

Partnership between community and government is the theme of the two examples from **Botswana**, where the incorporation of cultural norms into national institutions featured in the growth and development of junior secondary schools and Brigades. This study provides an example of the use of decentralisation and partnership to empower communities and involve them in education and training.

Ghana has also provided two examples: the first charting the progress of educational reform in the past decade, the second focusing on promoting science and technology among women and girls. Both examples emphasise the management of improvement, particularly in access, quality and the development of basic technological skills.

Jamaica and Seychelles present studies which address similar concerns: unemployment and underemployment in fragile island economies. The projects both place emphasis on the provision of relevant transferable skills that will provide youth with greater employment prospects and the countries with improved productivity prospects.

The **New Zealand** case illustrates the intricacies of implementing a resource allocation policy within a devolved decision-making management process. This case demonstrates the importance of setting clear preconditions, the use of research methods and successful targeting in ensuring acceptance by stakeholders and shows that change is often most effective if introduced incrementally over time.

None of the projects described in the following pages is complete; moreover they all exhibit specific problems, constraints and challenges. Their degree of success lies in the extent to which professional management processes are used by the governments involved.

37

4.2 Commonalties

The case studies highlight the breadth, scope and diversity of what constitutes professionally managed government. However, an analysis of the studies also reveals that certain factors were common features in all six countries:

- ◆ commitment
- ◆ an enabling environment
- ◆ target setting
- ◆ operational research capability
- ◆ flexibility and responsiveness to needs and change
- ◆ demand driven impetus
- ◆ a multi-sectoral holistic approach
- ◆ decentralisation
- ◆ partnership between public and private sectors
- ◆ HRD initiatives resulting either in institutional capacity building or poverty alleviation

Thus, although each case study speaks for itself, there is a manifest common message that the features associated with a professionally managed government make essential contributions to effective human resource development.

Case study 1: Bangladesh

The Thana Resource Development and Employment Project

Bangladesh is bordered by India on the west, north and east and by Myanmar on the south-eastern tip. Its southern coast-line is bordered by the Bay of Bengal. The land is mostly flat with low hills in the north. The rivers Ganges and Brahmaputra, known locally as Padma and Jamuna, flow through the country and much of the land is criss-crossed by numerous waterways of the vast Ganges-Brahmaputra delta. The country has a tropical monsoon climate and is subject to periodic cyclones, floods and natural catastrophes.

and malnutrition resulting from a rapidly growing population superimposed on a meagre resource base. According to an official estimate the population is growing at 2.17% per year and the daily calorie intake stands at 83% of the minimum WHO recommended level. A large section of the agricultural labour force is engaged in subsistence share-cropping on leased lands. About 60 million peasants are described as 'functionally landless', owning 0.2 hectares or less. The population is young: approximately

Table 4.1: Bangladesh – baseline HRD indicators

Year of independence	1971
Capital city	Dhaka
Total land area (sq km)	147 960
Estimated population (million) (mid 1994)	120
Average population density per sq km (1994)	810
Per capita income GNP (US\$) (1992)	220
Life expectancy at birth (years) (1993)	51.8
Adult literacy rate (%) (1994)	35
Combined first, second and third level school enrolment (%) (1992)	38
Public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP (%) (1990)	2.0
HDI rank (1996)	143/174

Bangladesh has an agriculture based economy; approximately 75% of the economically active population depends directly or indirectly on agriculture which contributed 34.5% of the total GDP in 1991/2. The main sources of revenue in the agriculture sector are jute, fish and tea. Meeting the nation's growing food requirements continues to be the major target. The production of rice has increased markedly and some progress has been achieved in diversifying the crop base, with wheat a particular success. Industry, including mining, manufacturing, power and construction, employed 15.4% of the working population in 1989 and contributed 16.6% of the total GDP in 1991/92. Mineral resources are few but there are large reserves of natural gas and smaller reserves of coal and petrol.

Bangladesh is among the world's most densely populated countries with more than 800 people per square kilometre. Three-quarters of the population live in rural areas where a large proportion of the active workforce remains outside the money economy. There is widespread poverty

45% are under 15 years of age. Life expectancy at birth is about 52 years and the proportions of the population with access to health services and sanitation are 45% and 10% respectively.

Bangladesh is one of the world's poorest countries: political instability and the unpredictability of the annual rains contribute to its erratic GDP growth. Floods, cyclones and drought are a common phenomenon, seriously impairing the entire economy by precipitating unanticipated food shortages, placing pressure on industry and causing a deficit in exports. The constraints on socio-economic growth and development are severe, resulting in an extremely high rate of unemployment and underemployment. Fluctuations in food prices largely affect the poor who comprise over fifty percent of the population. The only way the country can enhance its economic status and quality of life is through appropriate human resource development. The case study of Bangladesh and the usefulness of the human resource development initiative described needs to be assessed in the above context.

The Thana Resource Development and Employment Project (TRDEP)

Background

The alleviation of poverty is one of the major objectives in all Bangladesh development plans. However, government programmes have had little efficacy due to their ineffective targeting, weak inter-sectoral linkages, inefficient delivery system, inadequate supply of complementary inputs and a weak institutional framework. NGO programmes have generally been credited with a better performance due to their more efficient delivery system, focused targeting and strong institutional framework with in-built flexibility. However, even the NGOs are often unable to reach the poorest and most disadvantaged section of the country. As a result the Department of Youth Development of the government launched the Thana¹ Resource Development and Employment Project (TRDEP). Phase 1 of TRDEP² covered two areas in 1987. Five more areas were added in Phase 2 and twenty five more in Phase 3, in 1991. The project incorporates many of the good practices of NGOs including innovative methodology and observation of cultural values during implementation.

then a group may be constituted with relatives and neighbours. Five to eight groups are federated to form a centre (kendra). The programme advocates indigenous, self reliant and participatory development of the poorest nuclear and semi-nuclear family groups. The Youth Ministry functionaries at the thana level work as a catalyst to organise the family group, comprising five to ten members, who meet once a week to discuss their problems. In the project area the officers carry out a survey of disadvantaged families to assess physical assets, available skills, potentially viable activities and the need for credit and skill development in order to ascertain the nature of assistance required. Priority is given to youths between 15 and 35 years of age. Each group selects a chairperson who is elected annually from the senior family members. The chairperson co-ordinates activities, provides leadership and ensures the appropriate use of credit.

Credit may be obtained for projects developing any of 22 non-agricultural areas of rural livelihood and trade. No collateral is required to get credit. The family group is responsible for payment of a weekly instalment for the loan granted to an individual member of the family. The loan recovery procedure is similar to the Grameen

19

Table 4.2: Criteria for family selection

Families must be:	
basically landless	less than 0.5 acre of land per family
of low income	12 000 taka or less per annum (approximately £20 or less per annum)
of few assets	the value of family assets must not exceed 50 000 taka (approximately £90)
of negligible employment status	preferably no permanent employment
of youthful age profile	3 to 4 (in small family) or 6 to 7 (in large family) members must be between 15-45 years of age
of balanced sex composition	at least one third women
of fixed abode	in a permanent place of residence

In the TRDEP model the family is taken as the basic unit and family members are organised as a group. If the required minimum of five adult members from a single family are not available

Bank system where the saving is basically treated as collateral for the loan. The first instalment is due 15 days after the release of fund. At the time of release of fund 5% is deducted as a contribution

¹ Administrative unit at the sub-district level

² The project was previously known by the acronym URDEP, the 'U' deriving from the word 'upazila' which subsequently became known as Thana.

to the group savings fund which is used for joint activities and emergency needs. The fund is reimbursed to the group with interest when the members graduate out of the TRDEP as a visible self-reliant group. After this the group is eligible to receive other institutional facilities. Deduction of 2% of the first loan and 1% of any subsequent loan creates a contingency fund which takes care of any non-payment that may occur for reasons beyond the control of the members. The aim is to strengthen disadvantaged family units through promotion of non-traditional activities for which supervised credit is provided to generate income, create awareness of the value of mutually supportive interaction and contribute to improved socio-economic status at the family level.

Selection of thana for the project

Selection of thana is based on two factors. The first is the need for a human resource development intervention among predominantly rural non-agricultural landless families in a particular area where there is a lack of adequate coverage by government or NGO agencies. The second factor is conditioned by administrative convenience, namely the existence of a branch/sub-branch of a nationalised commercial bank designated by the central bank through which loan funds can be channelled.

Selection of families

A poverty index is used for selection of families. The index includes specific criteria such as state of homestead, annual family income and existing ownership of assets, age of beneficiaries, employment status of family members, number of potential family members in the house-hold, permanent residence in the area and absence of a record of chronic institutional loan default. Table 4.2 shows the criteria for selection.

The selection of trade for the members is based on an area of specific need and on the marketability of goods.

Project administration

The project is implemented, administered and overseen by the Department of Youth Development through a project implementation unit (PIU) which has 4 zonal offices, 32 area offices, 64 branches and a network of field offices. The functionaries, or animators, of these offices are trained in credit management and project management and are provided with a hand-book which gives

information on their authorities and responsibilities. There are 320 animators. Training materials are designed to meet the needs of members.

The field work is decentralised. The key implementers of the project are the group animators who form groups, disburse loans and sensitise the group members regarding family welfare including sanitation and child care.

The Association of Chairpeople at the federal centre co-ordinates activities. The chairperson of each area represents the beneficiaries and recommends and monitors use and repayment of loans. At the thana level the Thana Advisory Committee serves as adviser for mobilising local resources and for monitoring the progress of the project. Technical assistance is provided by the Project Advisory Committee which meets every two months to identify bottlenecks, explore options and appraise rural entrepreneurship. The highest body is the National Steering Committee which provides guidelines for effective implementation of the poverty alleviation programme.

The major thrust of the programme is human resource development. It enables family group members to become functionally literate. The literacy programme is intrinsically linked with the life, needs and environment of the members. For these reasons the learning materials are prepared at the TRDEP centres.

The health programme provides preventive and curative health education. The common health problems are diarrhoea, dysentery, anaemia, night blindness and goitre which are all aggravated by ignorance and poverty. The health programme is also directed towards sensitising members to the value of a nutritious balanced diet which is within their means and which can be procured locally. It also helps the members to link government and NGO health facilities in the area. The programme encourages awareness of family welfare including the rationale for adopting family planning practices. TRDEP enables the members of the group to undergo leadership training and entrepreneurship development training which helps them to establish income generating activities and to operate loan funds according to set regulations.

Another important human resource development intervention is provision for training in livelihood and trades. These are classified into categories according to credit requirements. In general, low credit areas comprise traditional activities such as transportation (bullock carts,

small passenger boats), paddy husking, seasonal trades in agricultural products, carpentry, poultry or cow rearing and similar activities. Medium credit projects are pisciculture, vegetable farming, fruit farming and related work. High credit projects include ownership and cultivation of fish-ponds, better quality poultry farms and livestock farms. Training, support services and credit facilities are provided for all these forms of livelihood.

The amount and type of loan provided is linked to livelihood and trade.

Institutional capacity building for effective credit operation and training is a precondition for efficient implementation of the programme. The schedule of loan disbursement is linked with improvements in operational and implementation capabilities at the bottom, middle and apex levels.

Table 4.3: Major accomplishments of THARDEP-II (Thanas), July 1990 to June 1992

Achievement areas	Target	Achievement	Achievement %
Beneficiaries reached (Nos.)	2 904	2 547	86%
Loan disbursed (in million taka)	1 230	1 104	90%
Loan recovered	802	802	100%
Group savings	60.96	51.78	85%
Weekly savings	18.05	18.05	100%
Interest gained from groupmembers (16%)	44.26	44.26	100%
Bank interest	-	24.09	-
Provisional fund (2%)	-	4.22	-
Family planning (Nos.)	5 715	5 201	91%
Non-formal education	29 604	25 477	86%
Tree plantation	8 612	8 102	94%

41

Credit operation

The Ministry/Department establishes a TRDEP Credit Fund (TCF) at the central bank and the credit fund is operated in accordance with bank regulations. From this fund, credit is made available to members of the group in accordance with the provision of credit in the manual prepared by the project. Credit is provided for beneficiaries through commercial banks with branches in the project area. An account in the name of the Thana Credit Fund (TCF) is opened and funds are remitted by the PIU to these accounts, according to estimated credit requirements. Micro-credits provide the means by which the beneficiaries apply for improved skill training to start or expand livelihood projects under a supervised system. For low credit trades, only two loans per beneficiary are made available, for medium credit trades, applications may be made for three loans and for larger credit trades loans are provided on the basis of appraisal of ability and performance. The loan amount increases sequentially according to repayment standing.

Appraisal: the HRD dimension

TRDEP is a new approach to poverty alleviation and specific locality development through a viable human resource development initiative. The achievement of the project in seven Thanas is shown in Table 4.3 above.

The TRDEP's target group comprises of young adults in the 15 to 35 age bracket. The mean age of members is about 30. This suggests that young school drop-outs (aged 15-25) are not as effectively covered as is desirable according to the population structure. This seems to have been caused by the selection criteria which favours slightly older people. Education is not a criterion for membership and illiterates constitute about a third of TRDEP membership.

Findings show that 90% of the TRDEP members recorded that their economic well-being had improved since joining the project. Nearly 47% of members indicated that as a consequence their social status was enhanced. A significant 15% stated that intra-family relations had strengthened after TRDEP family group forma-

tion. With respect to productivity from work, 43% of the members indicated that their family income had increased. As work productivity and family income increased the food intake of 20% of the TRDEP families improved significantly whilst for 70% of TRDEP families it improved to some extent.

The TRDEP members were found to be regular in attending weekly meetings. 77% of the members had a record of full attendance at meetings.

TRDEP has succeeded in promoting human resource development through income generating activities by adopting group responsibility and a supervised credit system with a decentralised operational modality similar to that of

NGOs. It has been able to attract and develop the poorest and most vulnerable section of the rural population of Bangladesh.

The focus is on income generation in traditional activities, but the need for upgrading the non-traditional and non-agricultural sectors, which could attract school drop-outs, still remains outside the project's activities.

TRDEP, an innovative government programme based upon an NGO modality, is establishing roots and its credit and savings operation have achieved notable successes. It also has the infra-structure to address other issues of human resource development as envisaged in its original objectives.

Case study 2: Botswana

Community Junior Secondary Schools and Brigades

The human resource development interventions in Botswana need to be understood not only from the perspective of a rapidly developing country but also in the specific context of the country itself.

the educational problems that confront the country have arisen largely as a result of under-financing in the education sector and include the need to extend provision of basic education for all, improvement in the quality of

Table 4.4: Botswana – baseline HRD indicators

Year of independence	1966
Capital city	Gaborone
Total land area (sq km)	2 182 000
Estimated population (1994)	1 457 000
Average population density per sq km	2.3
Per capita income GNP (US\$) (1994)	3 000
Life expectancy at birth (years) (1992)	64.9
Adult literacy rate (%) (1992)	67
Combined first, second and third level school enrolment (%) (1992)	71
Public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP (%) (1990)	15.9
HDI rank (1996)	71/174

43

Botswana is situated in the centre of Southern Africa. Approximately 80% of the land is arid and includes part of the Kgalagadi Desert in the west. The western part of the country is very sparsely populated but even in the eastern section the population density averages only 31 per sq km. 43% of the population is below 15 years of age.

When Botswana achieved independence in 1966, it was one of the poorest countries in Africa. Since then it has undergone rapid socio-economic changes and now has one of the fastest growing economies in Africa. Between 1980 and 1987 real GNP per head increased at an average annual rate of 9%. According to available statistics, this ranked as the second highest growth rate in the world (Swartland, 1991).

Botswana has a narrow economic base and is heavily dependent on exports of minerals and beef products. Apart from the more commercialised beef industry, the agricultural sector remains largely depressed due to constant droughts. This has limited the potential earning capacity of a significant number of people, especially women, and has severely limited the economic base of the rural population.

The extraordinarily high economic growth rate has resulted in a shortage of trained manpower for the modern sector of the economy. Some of

education and the problem of inequity in the educational services.

After independence there was a remarkable expansion of education. Between 1966 and 1988 primary enrolments increased 3.5 times and secondary enrolments increased 26.3 times. In 1991 it was estimated that approximately 85% of the primary school aged population were enrolled in schools and over a third of primary school leavers entered secondary school (Swartland, 1991). In 1994, Botswana began implementing the recommendations of the Second Commission on Education. The Commission focused on seven areas: access; equity; preparation of students for life; relevance of education; quality improvement; maintenance of standards and improving the performance and status of the teaching profession. The following case study illustrates Botswana's approach to human resource development through Community Junior Secondary Schools and the Brigades.

The case of Community Junior Secondary Schools and the Brigades

Introduction

Botswana's political philosophy is guided by four national principles; Development, Unity, Self

Reliance and Democracy. These provide a focus for the nation's vision and aspirations and an agenda for all aspects of socio-economic development. Within this context, the government recognises human resource development as central to the nation's economic development.

In line with the overarching theme developed during the Jomtien Conference (1990) and echoed in *Foundation for the Future* (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993), the Botswana case study singles out one of the core programme areas identified: Education and Training. It reviews the partnership between government and the community in fostering the development of Community Junior Secondary Schools and Brigades. This latter venture was designed to meet the goals of both basic education and 'education with production'. It provides an example of the way in which the key strategies of decentralisation and partnership can empower communities and promote community involvement in education and training as an essential strategy for human resource development.

Community Junior Secondary Schools (CJSS)

The Botswana education system covers a period of seventeen years, comprising a 7-3-3-4 primary, junior secondary, senior secondary, university system. In the past, educational provision in Botswana was free at the point of delivery. In April 1995, however, a system of student loans was introduced for all tertiary level students except for those studying in areas of critical manpower shortage, such as science and technology, many of whom still receive full grants.

Whilst education at all levels has been the responsibility of government, community involvement is greatest in the Junior Secondary schools where it is recognised that government and the community have a joint responsibility for the educational development of the country. Both ownership and management of Junior Secondary schools are vested in local communities. Capital investment and recurrent expenses are, to a large extent, provided by the central government because these schools are legally classified as government-aided institutions. The development of the Community Junior Secondary Schools (CJSS) has a philosophical as well as an economic underpinning:

Co-operation between the school and the community must be underlined because, without that requisite co-operation, the development of our children/ students both in terms of academic achievement and discipline standards would remain a hollow dream.

[P. H. K. Kedikilwe, 1995
Minister of Presidential Affairs]

Co-operation and support is maintained between the school and the communities through Parent Teacher Associations (PTA) and between government and the community through Boards of Governors which manage the schools.

Background to the establishment of Community Junior Secondary Schools and Boards of Governors

Before the establishment of CJSS in Botswana, pioneer Community Secondary Schools operated as private schools. They were fully self supporting. They had complete autonomy, exercised within the framework of education policy and legislation, over the aims and objectives of the school, development programmes, acquisition of land and housing, raising and disbursement of funds, staff recruitment and their conditions of service and admission and removal of pupils.

In 1984, in view of the increased demand for secondary education, government decided to convert these schools into government aided schools. Their governance was to be the joint responsibility of government and the local communities. This concept has become a characteristic feature of CJSS which have now replaced the former privately operated secondary schools.

The CJSS system was established in line with the following recommendations of the National Policy on Education (1977):

- ◆ to increase access to Junior Secondary Schools and make education equitable
- ◆ to increase community participation in education through government and community co-operation in the financing and management of schools

As a result of this partnership venture the number of CJSS has risen from 34 in 1985 to over 200 in 1996.

Operations and inter-relationships between Ministry of Education and Boards of Governors: duties and responsibilities

It is essential that, as co-operating partners, neither government nor the communities have absolute authority over the governance of schools (Secondary Department 1993).

Responsibilities of the Ministry of Education

The Ministry of Education has the major responsibility of laying down the policy and legislative framework under which all schools operate. Relevant policy documents include the 1978 Private Secondary Schools Regulations, *Education and Partnership* (Ministry of Education, 1984), which outlined the nature of partnerships, the 1988 pamphlet on the *Duties and Responsibilities of Boards of Governors* and the *Guidelines for Boards of Governors for Government Aided Community Junior Secondary Schools*, 1992 (revised in 1994). Headteachers, in view of their professional training, are expected to handle the day to day running of the school and an Accounting Officer, appointed by the Ministry of Education, oversees the control and utilisation of funds, stores and buildings.

Responsibilities of Board of Governors

Boards of Governors are the formally constituted governing bodies of CJSS (Education Act, 1986), and are responsible for the administration, management and supervision of the schools. They are expected to provide the local support which may be needed by the school. Recruited from within the local community, they are better able to interpret its needs and concerns, assess its capability to provide support services and effectively motivate community commitment to the development of its schools (Secondary Department, 1995).

Boards of Governors are the key elements that make CJSS "community schools" (Swartland and Taylor, 1988, Moorad, 1990). They exist to sustain the principle and purpose of the CJSS and were formed as part of the mechanism linking Government and communities in cost-sharing, management and supervision (Mannathoko and Odharo, 1990). They have three major functions:

1 School planning:

including identification of land, registration of the school and naming the school in accordance with the community wishes.

2 Financial and resource management:

including maintenance of the existing infrastructure, fund raising for the construction of school building projects, operating the school's accounts and producing an annual financial statement for the community.

3 Administrative management:

Boards of Governors visit school managers and assist with staff accommodation and the appointment and payment of non-teaching staff.

The Boards comprise elected members of the communities and exofficio members from government. Each head of school acts as Secretary to the Board. The management authority is usually vested in the secretary and the school manager.

Successes and constraints

Access to basic education has been greatly enhanced with the growth of CJSS. This partnership venture can claim some significant areas of success but a number of problems have also been identified.

Successes

Success has been particularly noted in the planning phase. Boards have had particular success in founding schools in their local areas and a number have involved themselves in the supervision of non-teaching staff. Others have managed to raise funds for development projects. For example at the Zwenshambe and Makome CJSS, teachers' houses, school halls and student boarding facilities have been built. Some CJSS, particularly the older ones like Zwenshambe, have a very strong sense of community responsibility and participation is very good especially through the PTA (Jacob, 1995).

Constraints

Several studies have identified problems inhibiting the efficiency and effectiveness of CJSS (Jacob, 1995, Mannathoko and Odharo, 1990, Molutsi, 1988, Moorad, 1989 and 1990, Tsayang, 1987, and Van Rensburg, 1986). Problems cited include among others:

Conflict and misunderstanding related to boundaries of authority

One problem is the difficulty of precisely defining the respective areas of jurisdiction of the two

co-operating partners. While definitions can be helpful in demarcating boundaries of authority for each of the partners in a joint enterprise such as a CJSS, they are bound to leave some grey areas which may become sources of conflict and misunderstanding. Such uncertainties are perhaps best resolved through consultation and compromise based on issues of practical implementation. (Secondary Dept, 1993)

A consultative forum between the Ministry of Education and Boards of Governors has evolved and has proved an effective mechanism for resolving some problems that are not adequately covered by legislative instruments. This is particularly notable in the case of defining jurisdictional boundaries and the respective responsibilities and powers of participating authorities.

The inability of some Boards to meet their financial commitments.

A number have found difficulty in raising the required funds and resources. After an initial effort to mobilise the necessary resources to start a community school, the initiative and motivation dies as soon as the school opens.

The vision of community independence has not been fully realised. Some communities have tended to depend on the Government subvention, thus diminishing their role. It would seem that the initial effort was to commit government to action and then relax, knowing that government would not close the school for financial reasons. (Mannathoko and Odharo, 1990)

Declining level of community participation

Jacob (1995) outlines problems relating to a weak sense of community participation, a recent trend demonstrated by the lack of interest shown by members of the community in school development projects, perhaps indicative of the dwindling spirit of voluntarism.

The level of innovation is not always satisfactory. In some instances, perhaps due to the proliferation of CJSS, there have been too many new projects for communities to accommodate within their available resources.

The composition, training and effectiveness of Boards of Governors

In general men are in the majority on the Boards of Governors. Representation of women is still lagging. This is an area that needs positive action.

A lack of in-service management training for Boards of Governors and a general lack of funds, supposed to be contributed by communities, makes the work of the Boards difficult to achieve.

Other problems that have been noted include the inactivity of Boards in matters relating to staff welfare and student discipline and the alienation of Boards from curricula decisions.

Through the development of CJSS, community participation has been given priority in the education development agenda. However, gaps exist in the process of decision-making, in management capacity and in levels of commitment which jeopardise the sustainability of the principle. Government, in consultation with relevant stakeholders, continues to strive to address these areas, especially with a view to making the partnership effective and efficient. There remains, for example, a need for more wide-spread community education and motivation in order to foster a stronger sense of self reliance and participation within each community.

Brigades

Background

The Brigades movement presents a second example of a government partnership with the community. The movement dates back to 1965, when the first brigade was founded by Patrick van Rensburg in Serowe. Since then they have played an important role in contributing to employment opportunities and providing services to various communities particularly in rural and remote areas.

The Brigades are autonomous, community-based, government-aided organisations governed by a deed of trust. Boards of Trustees made up of representatives from communities, brigades staff and trainees, nominees of the Minister of Education and ex-officio members oversee their operation. The Board of Trustees is the policy-making body of the Brigades. They employ co-ordinators to manage the Brigade Centres and ensure policy implementation. They are regulated through the National Brigades Co-ordinating Committee, a forum for policy formulation which co-ordinates activities at national level and for presenting their views to government and others (Ministry of Education, 1995).

Government continues to expand the Brigade movement to communities not yet being served. The Department of Vocational Education

and Training (DVET), through the National Brigade Co-ordinating Committee (NBCC), is charged with assisting communities to develop and present proposals for new Brigades.

After an initial enquiry from a community, a delegation, often including representatives from Brigades, is sent to meet with local community leaders and government officials. A 'kgotla' (local council) meeting is called where the delegation can explain what a Brigade is and the steps a community needs to take in order to be approved for funding. The delegation also listens to community views on their expectations from a Brigade. Aside from the more technical requirements of a feasibility study and a development plan and budget, the key to any approval is evidence of community support. The community must provide land and some start-up money as proof of its commitment. To ensure that the project has broad community support, the Tribal Authority, the Chairperson of the Village Development Committee, the District Officer and the Council Secretary all sign the formal documents.

Once the community meets all of the requirements, the NBCC reviews the final application. This Committee then makes a recommendation to the Ministry of Education.

Objectives

The objectives of the Brigades are:

- 1 To promote the socio-economic development and advancement of the people of Botswana with particular regard to training and the creation of wage employment or self-employment opportunities that emphasise vocational skills.
- 2 To provide general vocational training facilities and to organise and arrange general educational activities that will fit the people concerned with the highest possible degree of skills in their chosen vocations and fields. (Ministry of Education, 1995)

These aims were emphasised by the Minister of Education in her speech at a seminar on Education and Production in South Africa (September, 1995):

The key elements of the Brigades' movement, as it has evolved over the past 30 years, are firstly, local control and secondly, 'Training

with Production'. Within 'Training with Production' the objectives are to provide skill training to local school leavers, to produce goods and services that contribute to community development and to help off-set the cost of training.

[Dr G. K. T. Chiepe, 1995]

Operations

Brigades were established initially for the purpose of training primary school leavers to become artisans in various trades. They are involved in three main activities: vocational training, income generating production and community development and extension work. They are engaged in local development through the provision of training and employment opportunities and through the offer of goods and services to the local community. The average number of trainees at a Brigade is 106 while the largest Brigade has approximately 190 students. Currently there are 33 Brigades operating throughout Botswana, especially in the rural areas where they have contributed notably to the promotion of meaningful rural development. The Brigades are among the main providers of vocational training in Botswana.

At present, Brigades offer training to more than 3,100 school leavers in 16 different trades such as building, carpentry, textiles, office skills, general maintenance, computer courses and business studies.

Trainees are given useful skills and the community is provided with a service through the 'production school'. All of this serves to promote the economic and social development of the community.

The success of the Brigades movement is significant when it is realised that its growth was not in response to government policies but was the result of individual initiatives from local communities. The idea spread because it worked and community leaders saw the benefit to their communities. From 1965 until 1975, the Brigades were fully independent of government. Income from the trainees' production was their main source of revenue and was used to cover the training costs. In 1975 Government began to subsidise training when it became apparent that Brigade production could not cover all training costs. Currently, Government provides both existing and new Brigades with a financial subsidy that is calculated on a per capita basis and which supports their approved training programme.

While Government has increased its financial contribution and technical assistance to the Brigades, they remain locally controlled, autonomous institutions.

Brigades, like the CJSS, have made a significant impact on the development of the country through training, income generation, community development and extension work. The joint partnership with the communities is reflected not only through the involvement of the Boards of Trustees, but also through community benefits. They are, however, not without problems and some of these are outlined below.

Government faces a challenge in providing job opportunities for the trainees. Originally, it was thought that graduates would remain in the community as self-employed artisans. The reality is that most migrate to larger population centres to become employees. The curriculum should provide trainees with the ability to see other options. Every trainee cannot be an entrepreneur, most are too young or inexperienced. There needs to be a way of motivating graduates to return to the education system after a few years of gaining on-the-job experience. Sponsorship programmes also need to be developed that will assist them in working through the problems of starting and managing their own business. The attitudes they are taught while they are still trainees are critical.

Economic conditions have changed considerably since the inception of the Brigades. When they began, especially in rural areas, they were generally the only provider of goods, services, employment and training. Today, Botswana has a broader and more diversified commercial base. Small and medium scale enterprises are making

themselves felt, even in rural areas. In many places, the Brigades are no longer the sole providers of goods and services. They have to compete with private business and must be concerned with costs as well as marketing. Without advanced business skills among their managers, Brigades may fall behind their competitors with the consequence that the central concept of 'training with production' will suffer.

Government has already taken the first step by recognising that the Brigades form an integral part of the vocational training system in Botswana and that all discussions and decisions relating to national vocational training needs must take the Brigades into consideration. It recognises that the private sector has not yet developed the necessary training capacity to cope with an appreciable number of school leavers. It also recognises that it is not possible for government itself to provide full-time, school-based vocational training. The cost in resources is just too high.

The success of the Brigades and the benefits to be gained from such a partnership are self evident not only from the way they have served the communities but also from their rate of expansion.

The two case studies above represent examples of the realisation of recommendations relating to partnership and community involvement in education and training made in *Foundation for the Future* (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993). It is evident that while a lot has been achieved, gaps remain that need to be filled if Botswana is to improve and enhance the effectiveness of its human resource development initiatives.

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Case study 3: Ghana

Secondary Education Reform and Promoting Technology Among Girls

The Republic of Ghana is situated on the West Coast of Africa with Côte d'Ivoire to the west, the Republic of Togo to the east and Burkino Faso to the north. The largest river is the Volta which has a large hydro-electric power station. Ghana is divided into ten regions. The most densely populated regions are in the southern half of the country where about one third of the area is covered by forest. The northern regions are open savannah grassland and are generally more sparsely populated.

significant improvement in Ghana's economic position and, following the implementation of its last Enhanced Structural Adjustment facility at the end of 1991, Ghana ceased to rely on IMF balance-of-payments support and returned to international capital markets after a twenty year gap.

Education

In the years after independence, education was given a very high priority resulting in higher

Table 4.5: Ghana – baseline HRD indicators

Year of independence	1957
Capital city	Accra
Total land area (sq km)	238 537
Estimated population (million) (1992)	15 960 000
Average population density per sq km (1992)	67
Per capita income GNP (US\$) (1992)	460
Life expectancy at birth (years) (1992)	56
Adult literacy rate (%) (1992)	60.7
Combined first, second and third level school enrolment (%)	45
Public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP (%)	3.3
HDI rank (1996)	129/174

Agriculture, forestry and fishing contributed to 47.3% of GDP in 1993. The principal cash crops are cocoa, coffee, bananas and coconuts. Export crops are, however, affected by both erratic weather conditions and fluctuations in international commodity prices. Timber production and mining, particularly, gold, manganese and bauxite are also important.

In 1983, in response to a rapid decline in the economy, the government introduced an Economic Recovery Programme with assistance from the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). Consequently, significant progress was achieved through the implementation of measures designed to boost international trade, to liberalise foreign exchange and to lower the rate of inflation by controlling government expenditure. During the transition to civilian government in 1992, there was a marked decline in economic growth which resulted in further reform and structural adjustment. However, on the whole the reforms have resulted in a

levels of literacy than in neighbouring countries. The adult literacy rate averaged over 60% in 1990 and is 10% higher than the average in sub-Saharan Africa. During the years of economic hardship experienced during the late 70s and 80s, the quality of education deteriorated due to severe resource constraints on the delivery of educational services and the proposed Education Reform Programme of 1976 was unable to be implemented. Following improvements in the economy, however, the government has now been able to reactivate this programme.

Ghana's two case studies on human resource development should be considered against this background.

The Ghana case studies

The reform of secondary education

Background

In 1987, the Government of Ghana decided to reactivate the Education Reform Programme

(ERP), first proposed in 1976 but which, for a variety of reasons, had not been implemented at that time. The major objectives of the educational reforms were:

- 1 to change the structure of the pre-university education system³
- 2 to increase access to education at all levels
- 3 to reform the curricula in order to place more emphasis on vocational, technical and practical subjects
- 4 to improve the quality of educational delivery at all levels.

The establishment of junior secondary schools (JSS), an integral part of the new reform, was begun on an experimental basis with the first intake to JSS in 1987. These students completed senior secondary school (SSS) in 1993 when they sat the senior secondary school certificate examination (SSSCE). The results of this examination were so discouraging that they provoked an outcry from all sectors of Ghanaian society. Adverse comments were levelled at the new structure of education and the preparation for and implementation of the reform programme.

In answer to the public criticism the Ministry of Education organised a National Open Forum to find out what went wrong with the planning and implementation of the school reforms, particularly at the senior secondary level.

The Education Reform Programme (ERP) had been planned and implemented with assistance from the World Bank and other donor agencies such as the UK Overseas Development Administration (ODA), the OPEC Fund, SIDA and UNICEF and massive funding had been injected into the education sector for its implementation. Following the National Open Forum, the government set up an Educational Reform Review Committee (ERRC) to review the planning and implementation of the reforms and to make recommendations for government consideration. Established in July 1994, the ERRC completed its work and submitted its report in October 1994.

The findings of the ERRC were widely published (even before the White Paper on the report

had been issued). Subsequent public discussion indicated that many of the major objectives of the ERP had been achieved. There was confirmation of increasing access to education at all levels, of a successful change in the structure and duration of the pre-university education system and of reform of the curriculum at both the basic and senior secondary levels to include vocational, technical and practical subjects. However, the equally important target of improving the quality of educational delivery had obviously not been achieved, as shown by the poor results of the 1993 SSSCE and by the low level of achievement attained by primary six pupils in a series of criterion referenced tests in English and mathematics.

The following factors contributed to the poor performance in the 1993 SSSCE:

- 1 There had not been adequate consultation with all stakeholders either in the formulation of policies for the ERP or when drawing up implementation plans. Teachers, the major actors in the implementation process, had not been extensively consulted.
- 2 Planning for the implementation of the Senior Secondary School (SSS) phase had been faulty. Plans for staffing SSSs with the requisite number of teachers qualified to teach the new subjects on the curriculum had not been well thought out. In 1991, to increase access, particularly in rural areas, 165 new SSSs were opened. Most were unable to attract experienced teachers and, therefore, some new subjects in the curriculum did not have qualified teachers to handle them.
- 3 To support the curriculum, new text-books had been developed and equipment for the technical, vocational and practical subjects was required. Procurement of these inputs was delayed when government failed to meet World Bank terms of effectiveness for the release of funds. Most students spent the first year without the benefit of text-books or equipment. In some cases schools taught the entire course without resource materials.
- 4 The quality of teaching and learning was constrained both by an overloaded curriculum and by ineffective teaching and supervision.

³ Before the reform, pre-university education averaged seventeen years; ten years of elementary school education followed by five years secondary schooling and two years sixth form. This was to be reduced to twelve years; six years of primary education followed by three years junior secondary and three years senior secondary education.

Measures are now being taken to solve these problems. In particular, the number of subjects included in the curriculum will be reduced. In spite of these initial problems, it is generally agreed that the aims of the reform are appropriate. With the correction of identified shortcomings and the full commitment of all stake-holders to implementation of the reform, Ghana will be able to develop its human resource capacity, enabling its people to participate fully and effectively in the country's economic, political and social life and, eventually, to raise their standard of living.

52

Promoting science, technology and mathematics education among girls and women

The problem of the under representation of girls in the study of science, mathematics and technology related subjects in Ghanaian secondary schools is being addressed by the Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STME) clinics for girls. The STME programme provides girls at secondary level with opportunities to pursue science and technology education to the highest level possible, to envisage careers in those areas and to experience 'Science for Living'.

It is assumed that science and its applications constitute the backbone of development and the more scientists and technologists there are, the better it is for the benefit of the nation. In Ghana, 51% of the total population is female but only a very small percentage of this group pursue science and technology related courses and careers. The potential contribution of women towards national development is, therefore, not being realised.

There is also a social dimension to this problem. Gender stereotyping leads society to believe and behave as if science and technology subjects are the preserve of males. Girls who might otherwise choose to study these subjects, therefore, tend to take up subjects in the arts or humanities.

The objectives of the STME clinics are to encourage girls in secondary schools to take a more active interest in science and mathematics as school subjects, to do well in them and to consider careers in this area. This is achieved by bringing groups of between 150-200 girls, from schools all over the country, to the clinics for a period of two weeks. During this time they interact with role model female scientists and technologists. Such interactions give girls an opportunity to realise that it is possible to be a woman scientist or technologist without losing their individuality

as women. The two week programme is fairly intensive:

- ◆ they visit institutions of higher learning in science and engineering in order to gain a better understanding of their subject areas;
- ◆ they visit industries and scientific research institutions to become acquainted with job opportunities;
- ◆ guest speakers are invited to discuss the problems they may encounter whilst working in male dominated areas, to give them an awareness of what they need to do and what they should expect;
- ◆ they may also spend some time on attachment, as far as possible to female scientists and technologists, in research laboratories and factories.

Through the STME programme, Ghana aims to break the myth surrounding female involvement in technology by paving the way for an increase in the number of female scientists, engineers and technologists produced by the nation. Since 1987, the Ghana Education Service, through the STME clinics and other related programmes has been able to:

- ◆ introduce over 1 500 girls from Ghana and eight other African countries to its annual clinic activities,
- ◆ reach out to over 1 000 pupils at the basic education level,
- ◆ give special orientation and in-service training to over 600 teachers in order to minimise gender bias in the classrooms and familiarise them with teaching approaches that will make science and mathematics more appealing to girls.

In 1987, when the project began, of the 3 241 students who took part in the General Certificate of Education Advanced Level examinations in mathematics and science, only 368 (11%) were girls. Five years later in 1992, of the 9 417 students who registered for the SSSCE in mathematics and science 2 212 (13%) were girls. A detailed analysis of the results shows that girls performed as well as and sometimes better than boys.

One of the important achievements of the STME clinics is their growing impact on female participation in science and technology education

at the tertiary level. It was as recently as 1976 that the first Ghanaian woman entered the only engineering school in Ghana (although two Tanzanian women had been admitted in 1972 and a Ugandan in 1975). During the intervening years, there have been very few women students in the School of Engineering. Since 1992, however, there has been a small but significant increase in their number; in that year 44 women (6%) out of a total of 724 students registered. Four studied mining engineering, the others studied chemical, electrical and civil engineering. Similar increases have been recorded in female enrolment in all the universities in Faculties of Science and the Schools of Medicine and Pharmacy. Clearly the

STME clinics, started in 1987 with UNESCO assistance, have contributed to the increase in the number of girls offering to study science related courses.

The success of this particular human resource development initiative, concentrating on the education of females, has led to the establishment of an STME Unit within the Ghana Education Service in the Ministry of Education. This unit has its own budget which enables it to formulate and execute its own programmes. Supplementary funding is received from time to time from public and private business organisations and from other donor agencies, such as USAID, to support the clinics.

Case study 4: Jamaica

The National Training Agency

The island of Jamaica lies in the Caribbean Sea and is the third largest island in the area. Its greatest length is 234 km from east to west and 82 km from north to south. Cuba, Jamaica's nearest neighbour, is 140 km to the north, whilst Haiti is 190 km to the east.

Secondary and tertiary levels, the delivery of quality health care and employment opportunities. Estimates show that 15.7% of the active labour force was unemployed in 1992. The present unemployment rate among women is twice as high as that of men.

Table 4.6: Jamaica – baseline HRD indicators

Year of independence	
Capital city	Kingston
Total land area (sq km)	4 411
Estimated population (million) (1994)	2 500 000
Average population density per sq km	567
Per capita income GNP (US\$) (1992)	1 340
Life expectancy at birth (years) (1992)	73.6
Adult literacy rate (%) (1994)	87.3
Combined first, second and third level school enrolment (%) (1992)	65
Public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP (%) (1996)	6.1
HDI rank (1996)	86/174

Jamaica is a mountainous island and half its area is over 300 m above sea level. The mountain ranges on the eastern part of the island are rugged and deeply dissected by river valleys. The highest range is the Blue Mountain Range which contains Jamaica's highest peak at 2 256 m. The central and western part of the island is a limestone plateau. The coastal area varies in width from a few yards to several miles and part of the north shore is composed of old coral reefs. The rivers are too short and steep for navigation but some are used for hydro-electric power. In spite of a heavy volume of emigration, particularly among women of child bearing age, the population increased from 2.3 million in 1985 to approximately 2.5 million in 1994. According to the 1992 census, the proportion of the population under 15 years of age has declined since 1970 and is now approximately 33% of the total whilst the proportion of the population over 60 years increased from 6.7% in 1960 to 10% in 1992. The most economically active group, those between 15 and 59 years of age, increased from 46% in 1970 to 57% in 1992. Among this group the youth, i.e. those between 15 and 29 years of age, comprise the major proportion. This places pressure on the education system at the sec-

There is no comprehensive food balance sheet available for Jamaica, however, available figures reveal a stagnation in domestic agricultural production and a heavy dependence on imported food. Tourism is the principal earner of foreign exchange.

From the late 1970s strategies for the socio-economic development of the country have been constrained largely by conditionalities imposed by multi-lateral financial institutions. Since 1981, a programme of structural adjustment has been central to the country's economic policy and the outcome of this has been a general reduction in the contribution of the government's budget for the social sector. The amount available for education, in particular, has declined significantly.

In recent years the country has been affected by a number of socio-economic problems. These include, the impact of the debt crisis, ecological and environmental issues, the impact of drug abuse, and deteriorating productivity at the workplace. Within the global matrix of technological change it is essential that a country is able to generate the capacity to comprehend the implications of such changes and to transform this understanding into sustainable strategies where people are at the heart of development.

The 1990–1995 Five Year Development Plan of Jamaica has recognised that human resource development is the means to effect this transformation by addressing the prevailing socio-economic concerns. The Education and Training Policy Statement reiterates the government's emphasis on the critical role of human resource development in the country's national development strategy.

Jamaica's case study on human resource development focuses on unemployment and underemployment. It analyses the country's strengths and weaknesses in this area and outlines the interventions that are being made to address the issues.

The development of the National Training Agency

Introduction

Over the years, Jamaica has had to cope with problems of unemployment and underemployment existing side by side with a shortage of skilled labour. The development of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) was felt to be the most appropriate response to these problems. A number of constraints have, however, hampered progress:

- ◆ Up to the late 1970s, the TVET institutional delivery system was highly fragmented, which made programme co-ordination extremely difficult.
- ◆ The TVET system frequently had to prepare people, with low literacy and competency levels for the local labour market; the initial belief being that Technical and Vocational training was more suited to students who were not academically inclined.

In 1982 the Human Employment And Resource Training (HEART) trust was established. Its initial focus was on the high levels of youth unemployment. The HEART Trust Act (1982) made it mandatory for private sector firms with a minimum wage bill of US\$86 644 per year to contribute to training programmes. These contributions could be made by providing in-plant training opportunities for the youth or by remitting 3% of their total wage bill to the HEART Trust which could then allocate this revenue to training.

The HEART Trust became synonymous with two major initiatives:

- 1 a programme of on-the-job training for school leavers,
- 2 institution-based, sector-specific training for educationally disadvantaged youth.

These programmes were designed to link the hitherto fragmented training system.

In 1989 a USAID evaluation report revealed that HEART, as it was then constituted, was unable to adequately implement skill training programmes and cope with the complexities of consolidating and upgrading the entire TVET system. Consequently a new Board was appointed in 1989 in response to a policy shift and was charged with the responsibility of improving the relevance and cost effectiveness of the TVET system by:

- ◆ raising entry level requirements to a Grade 9 educational standard and extending remedial action to those who were unsuccessful in the Grade 9 assessment,
- ◆ training more instructors,
- ◆ improving the quality and relevance of training,
- ◆ focusing less on expensive institutional programmes and more on establishing on-the-job and community-based programmes,
- ◆ developing and introducing modular competency-based training courses,
- ◆ increasing opportunities for women to participate in non-traditional skill areas,
- ◆ working to ensure that training leads to productive employment.

In May 1990, the CARICOM Ministers of Education adopted a regional strategy for TVET. Jamaica, in response, implemented plans for co-ordinating all vocational training activities in the public sector. The HEART Trust was reconstituted as the National Training Agency (NTA) in 1991. It had direct responsibility for policy planning, gathering information on the labour market and training instructors. In order to improve the effectiveness of the training system, Testing, Certification, Accreditation and Funding also became functions of the organisation.

In the global market, Jamaica has had to compete with countries with higher levels of

productivity which also have higher levels of literacy and standards of education. Currently 49% of the unemployed labour force in Jamaica is twenty-five years and under (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7: Unemployment figures by sex and age, 1994

Sex	Age group	Unemployed	% Unemployed
Male	under 25	30 000	18
	25 years +	24 700	14
Female	under 25	52 100	31
	25 years +	60 400	36

Source: Statistical Institute (STATIN), 1994

Within this group only 85% are literate (Table 4.8).

The challenge now facing the NTA is to produce enough skilled and semi-skilled workers to meet the requirements of various sectors of the economy, efficiently, effectively and in accordance with national development priorities.

Table 4.8: Literacy rate by age group

Age group	% Literate
15-19	86.5
20-24	82.7
25-34	85.3
35-44	77.7
45-54	69.4
55-64	61.9
65 and over	47.9
All Jamaica	75.4

Source: National Literacy Survey, Jamaica, 1994

Since 1991 the NTA has adopted the following strategies:

- 1 Developed a close working relationship with industry in order to forecast training needs in key occupations. The NTA then helps training institutions to offer relevant programmes to supply these skills;

- 2 Introduced an Occupational Certification through the National Council for Technical Vocational and Education Training (NCTVET);
- 3 Increased in-plant training of existing workers which contributes to improved productivity;
- 4 Reorganised the curricula in modular form. This concept is directly linked with competency-based training and performance based assessment and has the following advantages:

- ◆ it allows for flexibility in the delivery of training programmes;
 - ◆ each module is self contained so that successful completion of training in any one module ensures the acquisition of a minimum skills level for performing that activity under employment conditions;
 - ◆ there is continuous adaptation of training programmes to conform with the standards and expectations of the industrial sector;
- 5 Made provision for gender-equal access to all programmes. In particular, it assists women to gain access to training in non-traditional areas such as building construction. Currently the vocational training system has a policy of affirmative action towards women in its programmes.

As a result of its role as a programme co-ordinator of the training system, the NTA has been able to attract assistance from various international partners, including:

- ◆ assistance from Germany to upgrade training programmes in the automotive and hospitality trades;
- ◆ assistance from the UN World Food Programme to design a programme of informal skills and remedial education;
- ◆ technical co-operation agreements with the governments of Brazil, Colombia and Venezuela to access technical assistance for in-service training opportunities in such areas as occupational standards development, upgrading of programmes and curriculum development.

Outcomes

The following are the outcomes of some of the NTA's expanded role:

- 1 The Vocational Training Development Institute (VTDI) for instructor training gained tertiary level status in 1993.
- 2 The instructor training curriculum at the VTDI has been updated to enhance the quality of vocational instructors being trained and upgraded.
- 3 The first National Vocational Qualification of Jamaica Level 1 certificates were awarded in July 1995.
- 4 The new Vocational Training Curriculum has recently been introduced in response to the needs of the labour market. This was developed with inputs from the leading industrialist groups who gave advice on the competencies required for occupations in their respective sectors.
- 5 Vocational guidance services are now being introduced through the NTA's Provisional Guidance Information System (PROGIS). This was set up with assistance from the National Training Board of Trinidad and Tobago. PROGIS trains vocational guidance counsellors and assists them to develop and access appropriate information about jobs and careers thus improving their skills and effectiveness within the TVET system.

57

Table 4.9 shows the results of a tracer study of the 1990 NTA graduates. About 61% of graduates interviewed were employed, 24% were actively seeking jobs and 16% were not seeking jobs.

Table 4.9: Employment tracer study of the 1990 NTA graduates and others (n = 919)

Respondent status	% Employed in labour force	% Unemployed		Totals %	Number of people
		Seekers	Non-seekers		
Graduate	68.8	21.6	9.6	100	648
Drop-out	37.5	30.7	31.8	100	88
Non-participant	42.6	28.7	29.7	100	183
Total	60.6	23.8	15.6	100	
No. of people	557	219	143		919

Table 4.10, pages 58 and 59, show the distribution of occupations in which the 1990 NTA graduates were employed. This indicates some of the ways in which Jamaica, through the NTA, is responding to the labour market and the training it is providing for young people.

Table 4.10: Percentage distribution of NTA graduates by occupation, 1990

Occupation group	Percent
Clerical and sales	43.8
Supervisory occupations	2.5
Secretary/typist	5.0
Data entry clerk	5.7
Receptionist/telephone operator	5.0
Cashier	3.0
Accounting clerk	9.6
Sales agent/clerk	5.7
Other clerical occupations	7.1
Craftsmen, production workers and machine operators	28.1
Machine operator (garments)	12.1
Other occupations in garment trade	4.8
Food processing	0.9
Electrician	2.3
Carpentry and wood fabrication	1.8
Masonry	0.2
Plumbing	0.5
Other craftsmen/production workers	5.5
Personal service, recreation and sports	17.2
Beautician and other related occupations	3.0
Housekeeper	1.6
Cook/chef	3.9
Food and beverage service occupations	4.3
Other personal and caretaking occupations	2.1
Protective service occupations	2.3
Professional, technical and related	3.7
Horticulturist	0.5
Teacher	1.6
Other professional	1.6
Unskilled occupations	2.9
Farm labourer	1.8
Other labouring occupations	1.1
Farmers	2.1
Administrative, executive and managerial	0.9
Other occupations	1.3
Total (549 graduates interviewed)	100.0

Case study 5: New Zealand

Targeted Funding for Educational Achievement

New Zealand, a predominantly mountainous country, is situated in the south western part of the Pacific Ocean. It consists of two main islands, North Island and South Island.

Zealand were reviewed. The most significant changes took place in primary and secondary education, where the management and administration of schools were devolved from the

Table 4.11: New Zealand – baseline HRD indicators

Year of independence	1840
Capital city	Wellington
Total land area (sq km)	270 534
Estimated population (million) (1993)	3 400 000
Average population density per sq km (1993)	12.9
Per capita income GNP (US\$) (1992)	12 600
Life expectancy at birth (years) (1992)	75.5
Adult literacy rate (%) (1992)	99.0
Combined first, second and third level school enrolment (%) (1992)	85
Public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP (%) (1992)	13.9
HDI rank (1996)	14/174

59

New Zealand is a major producer of wool. Meat and dairy products are important and in 1992 contributed to 16.2% and 14.1% of export earnings respectively. Manufacturing and mining are also important industries. Tourism is the largest foreign exchange earner.

The population consists of people of European, Maori and Polynesian descent and is largely concentrated in urban areas. Nearly three quarters of the population lives on North Island which has an average population density of 17 persons per sq km, compared with 6 persons/sq km on South Island.

The Ministry of Education is responsible for providing policy advice to the Minister on all aspects of education from early childhood to tertiary education, work oriented education and training, overseeing implementation of approved policies and ensuring the optimum utilisation of resources allocated to education. The Ministry ensures, through contractual arrangements with other agencies, the delivery of education advisory services, special education services, the curriculum and provision for early childhood development.

Schooling is compulsory from six to sixteen and in 1991, 35% of the population over fifteen years of age had university or other tertiary level qualifications. During the six years from 1989, all aspects of educational administration in New

Education Boards of the old Department of Education to Boards of Trustees for each school. Each Board operates under its own charter and receives a funding grant from the government. From 1991, the structure and norms of funding of tertiary education were also changed. All universities and polytechnics are expected to compete with each other and funding is provided primarily by government loans instead of grants.

The case study provided by New Zealand illustrates a human resource development intervention in the area of education. It outlines the constraints faced and the lessons learnt in providing targeted funding for educational achievement.

The implementation of a policy for human resource development

Preamble

The implementation of a resource allocation policy in an environment of devolved decision-making requires a set of pre-conditions to ensure not only acceptance by the stakeholders but also success in targeting. This paper sets out what was an initially unsuccessful attempt to implement a centrally driven policy of targeted funding that was reintroduced some five years later, at the local level, with a much higher degree of acceptance and success. The call for targeted funding, emanating

60

from the schools, in fact, closely paralleled the earlier policy change. Its consequent acceptance reflected a strong attitudinal change both in the targeted group and the wider community.

Targeted Funding for Educational Achievement (TFEA)

Introduction

Targeted Funding for Educational Achievement (TFEA) is a funding resource allocated to schools where a high proportion of students come from backgrounds which are likely to create barriers to educational achievement. The allocation is determined by a socio-economic indicator based on census mesh block data and the ethnicity data contained in each school's annual roll return. The basis for the allocation of TFEA was tested in a group of schools in 1994. It was introduced nationally in 1995 and was modified in 1995 for the 1996 school year.

An attempt had been made in 1989, during the major reform of the administration of education in New Zealand, to develop a mechanism for disbursing discretionary funding using census data to target the funds. The intention of *Tomorrow's Schools*, the blueprint for education reform, was to bulk fund salaries and operational costs for all schools. This would have demanded some rationalisation of targeted resources, bringing some into baseline or core funding and combining others and allocating them on the basis of a more general framework. Bulk funding of salaries did not occur and was politically rejected in 1990 as a compulsory mechanism. That aside, officials had not been able to resolve the administrative problems with the mechanism in the time available. It was estimated that a statistical model for the allocation of supplementary resources would take a development period of at least 18 months. A similar model had been developed and applied in Australia but would require validation in New Zealand.

In the years between the reforms of 1989 and the introduction of TFEA in 1995, however, not only was an instrument developed but in the new climate created by the education reforms, the education community itself began to demand more accurate and transparent targeting of funding. Hence, policy that would have encountered a great deal of opposition if it had been introduced in 1989, was introduced in 1995 with relatively little fuss.

A distinction is drawn between funding for needs which can be predicted fairly reliably in the school population at large, such as those targeted at addressing educational disadvantage caused by socio-economic factors, and funding for needs which cannot be predicted reliably in the school population at large, for example the special education needs for those with a physical, emotional or intellectual disability; or the special English language needs of those whose first language is not English. The resources referred to here are the former. They do not include special education resources. As well as the resources discussed in this paper, there is a further resource allocated in the New Zealand school system called Maori Language Factor Funding, designed specifically for the enhancement and retention of the Maori language. This is also not among the resources discussed in this case.

Background

TFEA evolved from earlier pools of discretionary funding for low educational achievement. One of these was Equity Funding. Equity Funding was set aside during the reforms of 1989 as a targeted discretionary funding resource given to assist schools 'to remedy educational disadvantage'. It was to be allocated on the basis of an application which needed to establish the school's eligibility using the following criteria:

- 1 either (a) the school services a community where more than 50% of parents are employed in occupations listed in categories 5 and 6 on the Elley Irving Index⁴ or are dependent on a benefit, or (b) more than 50% of the pupils are non-European;
- 2 and any two of following criteria:
 - ◆ English is a second language for a significant number of pupils
 - ◆ there is evidence of general low achievement
 - ◆ there are high levels of truancy
 - ◆ there are low retention rates to the senior forms
 - ◆ there are staffing problems

⁴ Elley Irving Index: a New Zealand measure based on categories of occupation that provide indicators of socio-economic status based on income and educational level. Categories 5 and 6 represent the lowest levels of the Index.

Applicants were also required to identify the uses to which the resources would be put. Applications were then considered by district officials of the Department of Education, (shortly to become the Ministry of Education in the reorganisation) who would use their knowledge of school communities to evaluate them, indicate whether they met the criteria and whether the school and the school community were mildly or severely disadvantaged. Successful applicants would then receive the resource as additional funding in the school's quarterly operations grant.

With the devolution in 1989 from central control of education to administration centred on schools, consultation assumed greater significance. In the allocation of Equity Funding, consultation became necessary at district level to replace the local knowledge of the former officials. This consultative process became increasingly formalised, culminating in the development of district allocation committees consisting of representatives of school sector groups such as principals' groups, Maori groups and the School Trustees' Association. This involvement was important in raising awareness among professionals and trustees of a number of issues relating to the fairness of the process of distribution.

One of the other principal resources which later was to be included in TFEA was the Learning Assistance Allowance, (LAA). Introduced in 1992, it was essentially a renamed allowance derived from several former primary and secondary school staffing pools variously named 'Special Needs', 'Learning Handicaps', 'Emotional Handicaps', and 'Special Problems'. LAA consists of separate primary and secondary staffing allowances allocated annually to sustain existing or already planned programmes on the basis of the following criteria:

- ◆ to support programmes for students whose ethnic origins create special needs;
- ◆ to support programmes for students with learning difficulties;
- ◆ to support programmes for particular learning needs not covered by other staffing provisions.

The allowances were distributed to the eleven district management centres of the Ministry of Education. As with the allocation of Equity Funding, district allocations committees were established to recommend allocations.

At first the criteria for primary and secondary LAA were different, but in 1993 LAA was reorganised by introducing the same criteria for both primary and secondary schools. This was significant in cutting the historical ties to many aspects of the allocation and establishing transparent, objective criteria. At the same time a review of the distribution of the LAA resources revealed that over the years some areas of the country had received a disproportionate share. These were to be redistributed to the eleven education districts on the basis of roll numbers with a weighting for ethnicity. This resulted in a fairly major reallocation of resources. To reduce the adverse impact on existing programmes, a phased implementation was provided for and transitional arrangements were made for existing programmes. This was a major upheaval and in hindsight, could be said to have prepared the way for further rationalisation.

Involvement of schools in the transparent allocation of both Equity Funding and LAA from 1992 and the availability of a review process for all schools whose applications were refused led to increasing awareness of inequities in the distribution of discretionary resources and dissatisfaction with the fairness of the methods of targeting schools for supplementary resourcing. In 1993, in preparation for the allocation of LAA and Equity Funding for 1994, an attempt was made to meet some of the dissatisfaction with the application process by developing a single application form for both resources and for one committee at district level to make the allocations. This did not, however, silence criticism of the application process.

From 1991 a project group had been established in the Ministry with the aim of rationalising policies which allocated resources to schools for 'special needs'. There was also seen to be a need to constrain fiscal expenditure and minimise the central bureaucracy in the delivery system so that more of the resource would reach the students for whom it was intended. The project group worked on the general premise that some students required greater assistance than others to gain access to the core curriculum and that those from lower socio-economic groups and from certain ethnic backgrounds are more likely to require this assistance. Recent studies in New Zealand and over-seas had confirmed the relationship

between socio-economic status and school achievement. They examined the research currently being undertaken in New Zealand as well as research in several other countries, to determine whether a socio-economic indicator was an adequate measure for educational disadvantage and concluded that it was feasible to use such an indicator. The project group raised the issue of whether the current criteria for the provision of discretionary resources in effect rewarded schools for poor performance and sanctioned them for improved performance through the removal of resources. They considered that socio-economic indicators had the advantage of not linking school performance to the allocation of funding.

In 1992, at the direction of the project team, a review of discretionary and targeted resourcing across New Zealand state schools was undertaken. It was noted that the allocation of discretionary resources to target educational disadvantages and learning needs had generally been won through various government policy initiatives over the preceding two or so decades. A number had only been partially implemented, for example the 1:20 staffing resource⁵ and notional roll status⁶. Commitment to the objectives of these programmes or the educational context in which they were initially developed had subsequently altered since their establishment. Approximately 95% of schools (catering for 99% of students) received at least one targeted resource. (However, if the Maori Language Factor Funding was removed, the figure decreased to about 50% of schools, catering for about 56% of students). 78% of schools received at least two discretionary resources, 28% at least four resources and 12% at least five. Some of the resources identified were not necessarily 'discretionary' in nature. The 1:20 policy would have been baseline funding if fully implemented, but as it was, the partial introduction gave an unfair advantage to some schools. Also the allocation had not been reviewed since its introduction. In the secondary sector, the universal allocation of some discretionary resources called into question whether it was accurate to call them 'discretionary'.

The review illustrated that once a school qualified for one discretionary resource, it became eligible for others. Because resources were allocated on a resource by resource zero-based approach, this led to a certain amount of unintended duplication of resourcing and might have

meant that some schools were over-resourced to the detriment of other less visible schools. The report also established that the most important determinants of a school's allocation of discretionary resourcing appeared to be its socio-economic status and ethnic composition.

During 1993 the Ministry found that principals of schools were expressing increasing frustration over the complexity of the application and approval process for Equity Funding and LAA staffing. This resulted in the Ministry seconding two principals to investigate the basis of this frustration and to make recommendations for improvements. They found that the chief cause of dissatisfaction was the annual application required for this funding. Concern was expressed that:

- 1 The ability to put together a case in an application gave some schools an unfair advantage
- 2 Use of the Elley-Irving Index as the primary determinant of funding resulted in inequitable allocations. The Index, developed from an occupational classification based on 1966 census data, was not designed to be used for this purpose. Recent changes in the labour market have also made the Index less useful.
- 3 The allocation of resources on an annual basis impeded the development of long term planning strategies.
- 4 The application might be considered to be an invasion of privacy since the method being used required schools to obtain specific socio-economic information on parents, such as the number in receipt of a social welfare benefit.

A particularly absurd outcome of the process was that some schools exaggerated their disadvantage in order to qualify for funding.

Implementation

A discussion document, *Supplementary Resources for Schools*, was distributed to schools and other interested parties in July 1993. It explained the current system of distribution of supplementary resources, identified concerns and suggested options for future change. The proposal to allocate equity funding by socio-economic indicators was well received.

In the meantime the Ministry had proceeded with the development of a socio-economic indicator. Two feasibility studies carried out by independent consultants in 1990 and 1991 concluded it was possible to develop a socio-economic indicator from census data which would predict school achievement and could be used to target disadvantaged schools. The desirable characteristics of such an indicator were that it should:

- ◆ be transparent to schools,
- ◆ be relatively simple to calculate,
- ◆ appear fair,
- ◆ have face validity (i.e. schools known to be in low socio-economic areas have a high score, whilst those in high socio-economic areas have a low score),
- ◆ have technical validity.

The indicator subsequently developed by the Ministry of Education was a combination of census data for areas from which each school draws its students, together with school ethnicity data. It was developed from the following dimensions:

- ◆ equivalent household income
- ◆ parents' occupation
- ◆ household crowding
- ◆ parents' educational qualifications
- ◆ Maori ethnicity
- ◆ Pacific Islands ethnicity

Statistics

New Zealand divides the country into small geographic areas called mesh blocks and aggregated census data can be obtained for each one. The mesh blocks from which the school draws its students and the proportion drawn from each mesh block are then determined through a sampling of parents addresses. The school catchment data, census data and school ethnicity data are then combined and used to build a socio-economic index for schools. All schools are then ranked nationally in deciles.

The link between the new indicator and achievement was demonstrated by a comparison between the indicator score and School Certificate results for secondary schools. This showed a closer relationship than that derived from the Elley-

Irving unemployed measure formerly used for the Equity Funding allocation.

The socio-economic instrument was trialed in all schools in February, 1994. In devising the indicator, it was important that it should be as simple and transparent as possible, so that all schools could understand how the results were calculated. For this reason, the decision was taken to combine the dimensions directly and to weight each dimension equally.

The next step was the application of the indicator to school resourcing. A new resource was created to provide a single pool, targeting schools where learning barriers were highest. This was TFEA, Targeted Funding for Educational Achievement, which was created from resources previously allocated as Equity Funding, LAA and (to be added in 1996) notional roll funding. Using the socio-economic indicator 30% of schools drawing from the lowest socio-economic groups were identified. Targeted schools were to receive TFEA from 1995 at one of ten funding rates which relate to the position of schools on the indicator compared with other schools receiving TFEA. In September, 1994, schools were notified of their position on the indicator and the funding step on which they were placed for TFEA. A proportion of the resource was held back as a transition grant for schools which had been resourced under the existing scheme but would not be eligible to receive TFEA. Schools were able to apply for a review of their decile rating. Successful challenges were to be funded out of the resource which had been held back.

One issue raised during the review process was the presence of two separate ethnic dimensions on the indicator. This was thought to disadvantage schools with a high proportion of either Maori or Pacific Islands students, or those schools which had few students from either group. In response to these concerns, a new combined ethnic dimension was created. For 1995, schools were to be resourced at the highest level indicated using either the two ethnic dimensions or the new combined ethnic dimension. During 1995, the first year of operation, a Review Committee was established, consisting of school sector groups, to consider whether any changes were necessary for 1996. After considering the committee's recommendations the Minister of Education approved some changes to TFEA:

- 1 The allocation was to be extended to decile 4 schools, that is to 40% of all schools.
- 2 There were to be twelve funding steps, instead of ten.
- 3 There was to be a single combined ethnicity dimension.

The additional funding required came from the addition of notional roll resources and also from reforms of the school staffing entitlement. For 1996 the TFEA pool of \$33m represented about 8% of the pool of supplementary resources to be distributed to schools. One objective of these reforms was to make a clearer distinction between the core resource entitlement for the delivery of the curriculum and management on one hand and truly discretionary resources on the other. This resulted in the reallocation of some resources to TFEA. Transitional resources were no longer required and could be added to the pool. This additional funding meant that at the same time as more schools were made eligible for TFEA funding, the per pupil rates, especially for schools in the lowest decile, could be increased substantially.

Conclusion

The introduction of a single funding resource targeted to enhance education achievement, delivered by means of an objective, transparent socio-economic indicator was achieved successfully in 1995. It could not have been introduced so successfully in 1989, even though this was a time of major education reforms. The main reason for this was that time was needed to develop an indicator appropriate to New Zealand conditions, time to allow for consultation and trialing of the new system, time for the new funding mechanism to be understood and accepted and time for cushioning the effects of the change by phasing it in and by the provision of transition arrangements. The education community in the years since 1989 had become involved in the allocation of resources and as a result of the transparency of the changes in allocation had become knowledgeable and interested in improved methods of allocation and better targeting. The ad hoc development of the former pools of discretionary

resources had led to anomalies and a conviction had developed that resources were either not being delivered where they were needed, or were

spread too thinly to be useful. The allocation of the principal resources, Equity funding and LAA, on an annual basis made long or medium term planning difficult.

Overall, an incremental approach to change proved more acceptable than a radical one. For example, the amalgamation of some groups of resources into larger packages, as with Equity Funding and LAA, enabled these resources to be redistributed on a fairer basis and also prepared the way for further reforms. The availability of a review process for applications and of transitional arrangements for the phasing in of new resources also lessened the impact of change. Most recently, a clearer definition of core resourcing on one hand and discretionary resourcing on the other has given a clearer rationale for funding overall.

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Case study 6: Seychelles

The Development of Vocational Training

Seychelles is an archipelago of 115 islands. Mahé, the largest island, accounts for 50% of the total land area and 90% of the population. Since independence in 1976, the islands have had a real annual growth rate in excess of 6% and have emerged as a middle income country.

whose skills and aspirations are far removed from the requirements of employers.

Two concerns have constrained the scope of human resource development initiatives in Seychelles: the country's physical limitations and the vulnerability of the economy. The value of

Table 4.12: Seychelles – baseline HRD indicators

Year of independence	1976
Capital city	Victoria
Total land area (sq km)	445
Estimated population (million) (1993)	76 800
Average population density per sq km (1993)	160
Per capita income GNP (US\$) (1992)	6 748
Life expectancy at birth (years) (1992)	71
Adult literacy rate (%) (1992)	over 95
Combined first, second and third level school enrolment (%) (1992)	-
Public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP (%) (1992)	8.5
HDI rank (1996)	60/174

65

Tourism is the main growth industry and accounts for 20% of all employment and 18% of national output. The contribution of the agricultural sector is small and accounts for only 4% of GDP. Poor soil on the islands has forced specialisation in a limited range of agricultural activities but a significant section of the labour force is engaged in the second ranking export industry, fish and fish products.

One of the striking features of the economy is that 62% of the formal labour force is employed in the public sector (including parastatals) which generates between 75 and 80% of GDP. There is a need to increase efficiency in the public sector and release labour for private sector activities.

The limited domestic manpower base, arising from the small size of the country, imposes its own constraints. The total labour force in formal employment is a little less than 25 000. This does not provide the critical mass necessary to sustain many trades and professions effectively and hampers the development of ancillary services or local expertise. At present, the significant mismatch that exists between supply and demand in the labour market suggests that the education and training system may be turning out job seekers

imports, nearly 58% of GDP, makes the economy unusually sensitive to external shocks and its scattered distribution and labour force constraints make it difficult to initiate the economies of scale that might benefit many economic activities. It is against this background that the case study of Seychelles needs to be examined.

Vocational training

Background

Initially vocational training at post secondary level comprised the following separate institutions under the umbrella responsibility of the Ministry of Education:

- 1 Secretarial School
- 2 Nursing School
(under the Ministry of Health)
- 3 Farmers' Training Centre
- 4 Technical School
(for construction/engineering trades)
- 5 Hotel and Catering School
- 6 Teachers' Training College

These institutions were headed by their own manager. Students undergoing training normally had received an average of eight years primary and secondary education.

Current situation

The Seychelles Polytechnic School was established in 1983 with assistance from the Republic of China. It comprised ten separate schools, providing a variety of courses and vocational training at post-secondary level. Most of these schools are housed in one building located outside Victoria. They are centrally administered by a Director and two Assistant Directors (Administration and Studies). Intake levels and fields of training are determined annually by the Ministry of Education's Manpower Division which is responsible for national manpower planning.

Consultative Committees were set up to link the Polytechnic with the world of work. These were usually chaired by the Head of School and employers, as members of the Committees, advised on the curricula and syllabi.

A variety of core or compulsory subjects are included in the curriculum including, mathematics, French, and physical and civic education. In addition students are expected to study specialised subjects relating to their trade. Courses vary in length from one to three years and an estimated 30% of each course is assigned to practical work.

At the launch of the Polytechnic in 1983, its objectives were clearly spelled out. Polytechnic education is expected to provide:

A multi-faceted education concerned with the whole person - with their moral, physical and intellectual development as contributing members of society.

Output

An estimated Rs200m (about U\$45.4m) has been spent over the decade, giving an average annual budget for the Polytechnic of Rs20m. This amounts to approximately 20% of the total annual current outlays of the national budget which stood at Rs973.5m (U\$243.3m) in 1995. An accurate analysis of the rate of return on investment in this area is unobtainable due to the lack of comprehensive and regular tracer studies.

Over the last decade, about 5 000 full-time students have graduated from the Polytechnic. Marked differences in the absorption rate of graduates into relevant employment sectors have, however, been noted between graduates in the productive sector and those in service related fields of training. These are illustrated in Tables 4.13 and 4.14 overleaf.

Tables 4.13 and 4.14 clearly show a much lower rate of return on investments in training courses related to production than those with service related courses. This may be attributed to a number of factors including:

- ◆ a disproportionate mix of theoretical and practical training,
[the amount of time spent on practicals may be insufficient and they are usually only conducted in a commercial environment during work attachment]
- ◆ the interest and expectations of students in relation to workplace realities,
- ◆ the selection process for entry into the Polytechnic,
[requires average or above average results in the national examinations; courses are, therefore, geared towards technical and supervisory posts rather than artisan jobs in the formal and/or informal sectors]
- ◆ the streaming process at secondary level,
[vocational and academic streams comprise about 40% and 60% of students respectively]
- ◆ the very rudimentary nature of vocational training in the schools,
[a study commissioned by Management Information International on the effectiveness of vocational training at the Polytechnic states that 'in many cases, the business and industrial environment has progressed technologically far beyond the schools of the Polytechnic'; it further notes that 'the current image of the Polytechnic is not strong enough to command a vital presence among business and industries']
- ◆ the background and experience of some instructors,
- ◆ the centralised administration of the Polytechnic reduces both operational flexibility and the generation of self-financing revenue,

Table 4.13: Production sectors

Polytechnic courses	Estimated no of graduates over 10 years	Estimated no working in a relevant field*		Remarks
Agriculture	250	50	20	About one third are employed in the Islands Development Company, the rest as technicians with the Ministry of Agriculture
Maritime	300	50	17	Most are employed by the Seychelles Fishing Authority.
Crafts (not incl fine Art)	400	10	2	
Engineering	500	350	70	
Construction	300	100	33	Numbers trained were determined by the capacity of the Polytechnic.
Total	1 750	560	28	

67

Table 4.14: Service-related sectors

Polytechnic courses	Estimated no of graduates over 10 years	Estimated no working in a relevant field		Remarks
Education and Community Studies	800	750	94	Mainly employed by the Ministry of Education and Social Services
Health	150 Studies	75	50	High attrition rates in previous years plus high levels of staff turnover are contributing factors. Most were initially employed in the Ministry of Health
Business	900 Studies	850	94	Includes accounting, secretarial and clerical studies
Hotel	600 Studies	350	58	High staff turnover also encountered in this field
Total	2 450	2 025	74	

- ◆ improvements in the quality of training have been hampered by the lack of regular, systematic and effective consultation with employers, particularly in the private sector,
- ◆ entrenched attitudes towards the status of blue and white collar jobs,
- ◆ a drain of skills in favour of better remunerated and/or less arduous jobs,
- ◆ a lack of information on specific jobs which may be available but not advertised,
- ◆ a reluctance on the part of some employers to employ Polytechnic graduates from certain courses in view of their lack of practical commercial experience,
- ◆ a lack of resources.

Challenges

Imbalances in the demand for and supply of manpower in various sectors of the economy are partly attributable to the ineffectiveness of some vocational training courses. Projections of manpower requirements for 1994–2000 indicate that, in numerical terms, there are enough jobs for the existing labour force. There are, however, indications of rising unemployment, unfilled posts and an increase in employment figures relating to expatriate labour in almost every sector of the economy. This is seen not only as a result of inadequate or irrelevant local training courses but also as a lack of interest in certain occupations. The following review of the employment situation in a number of sectors illustrates these trends:

Health

There is a shortage of fully qualified nurses which has resulted in regular complaints, particularly from inpatients, about the medical service. In the nursing field unqualified school leavers are being employed by some organisations as nursing assistants. After completing a short period of training, they perform a variety of unskilled tasks.

Tourism

A small, but noticeable decline in the number of visitors in recent years may have resulted not only from increasing competition from neighbouring islands, such as Mauritius and the Maldives, but also from poor quality service. There has also been a significant decline in

tourist spending. Between 1990 and 1992, the average expenditure per bed/night decreased by 3.3%. Complaints from tourists, detailed in a survey by the Management Information Systems Division, targeted the poor quality of service in relation to the cost of holidays in the Seychelles. Hotels and restaurants regularly recruit untrained waiters and waitresses to cope with periodic shortages.

The decline in tourist spending may also be a reflection of a lack of creative artisans in the craft sector. There have been recent increases in the importation of craft items and artefacts from neighbouring Kenya.

Agriculture

The import of agricultural produce amounting to Rs53m (5.3% of the national current outlay on imports) together with an increasing acreage of under-utilised farmland indicates, among other factors, an inadequate supply of farm labour. Farmers in a recent Manpower Planning Survey indicated that they are unable to find young workers interested in working on the land.

Construction industries

In this sector there is a severe shortage of skilled artisans, particularly, masons, carpenters, tilers and specialists in other specific trades. An increasing number are being recruited from overseas in order to maintain the construction boom that Seychelles has experienced for nearly a decade. This peaked in 1994 when 1 245 workers (51% of all expatriate workers) were brought in during a major housing construction project.

Maritime industries

In the maritime sector there are virtually no Polytechnic graduates engaged in fishing, not even on the relatively comfortable European Union tuna vessels. Some 76% of all Seychellois fishermen are now over 30 years of age. A recent private venture in semi-industrial fishing is having difficulties in recruiting young fishermen with the right attitudes for such work.

Engineering industries

Although many graduates from the Engineering School are working in the relevant field, there is a shortage of good technicians. The effective maintenance and repair of cars, engines and other equipment is a major problem and items that could be repaired are frequently replaced.

The total cost of imports of machinery and equipment rose from Rs254m in 1989 to Rs310m in 1993.

Education sector

In contrast to other areas, the education sector has retained most of its trained personnel and has also been able to upgrade skills within the teaching force. Expatriate manpower has dropped by 20% in the last two years. Relative improvements in education, in qualitative terms, over the decade are difficult to assess as there has not been insufficient in-depth analysis or evaluation carried out. There are, however, more students being educated and trained at higher levels than ever before. The democratisation of higher education is a positive phenomenon.

Conclusions

The shortage of skilled young people with positive attitudes to work is fast becoming an impediment to progress and development and one of the major complaints of employers. Rising unemployment figures, now calculated as 9% of the workforce, also indicate that the majority of the unemployed are among the unskilled youth. This problem needs to be tackled urgently and a review of vocational training is a government priority. Training must better answer the needs of industry.

In 1995, the government, backed by the National Assembly, called for the establishment of a high level National Vocational Training Board to review the whole question of vocational education and training in Seychelles and improve the organisation and co-ordination of all partners involved in the process. The President or his designate will chair meetings of the Board.

The Human Resources Development Seminar, held in 1994 after the HRDP donors' seminar had made a similar recommendation, called for a review to assess the effectiveness of the vocational education and training system. As a result some positive interventions for human resource development have been initiated.

A comprehensive tracer study of Polytechnic graduates over a span of ten years is being undertaken by the Manpower Division, using the population and 1994 National Census data bases that have recently become available.

The future

In 1995, following sectoral manpower studies in the agricultural sector, government decided to link training with the world of work by setting up a Farmers' Training Centre that would be managed by the relevant Ministry in close liaison with the Polytechnic. The Hotel and Tourism Training School has already been moved from the Ministry of Education to the Ministry of Tourism and Transport. The outcome will be evaluated shortly.

Future improvements will lie with the National Vocational Training Board which will be expected to formulate a national vocational policy, outline strategies for a programme of action and establish standards. Its purpose is not simply to become an extension of the existing institutional framework but to act as an objective evaluator of the effectiveness of future training programmes. Effective intervention to promote relevant skill training will lead to appropriate human resource development for all sectors of the economy.

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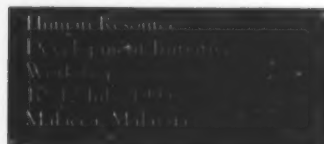
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